The Outlook

Vol. 75 September 12, 1903 No. 2

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The Outlook is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The first issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

Price.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

Postage is Prepaid by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila Samoa, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add $1.56 for postage.

Change of Address.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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How to Remit.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

Letters should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

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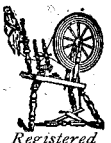

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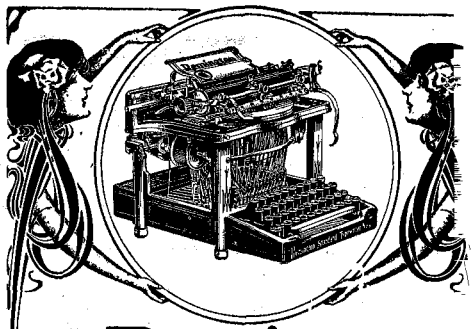

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The Outlook

Published Weekly

Vol. 75 September 12, 1903 No. 2

The Macedonian Insurrection

On Tuesday of last week the Sultan celebrated the anniversary of his accession. Though the Bulgaro-Macedonian revolutionists had indulged in much bluster as to what might happen in Constantinople on that day, the occasion was not marked by any outbreak—probably because of the doubling of the police patrol. The most significant event was an address, quite contrary to precedent, from the Sultan himself to the heads of the Christian communities who went to congratulate him. Abdul Hamid declared that "all my desire is for the welfare of the population, without distinction of race or religion." This will be hardly palatable to either the social or the religious classes in power throughout the Empire. The Sultan said further that "the recent detestable and regrettable deeds did not proceed spontaneously from the population, but were instigated from abroad." Significantly and pointedly he then turned to the Bulgarian Exarch and bade him communicate these words to his flocks. Next addressing the Greek Patriarch, the ruler expressed his regret that the Greek population also had suffered from the recent troubles, and offered to contribute to the subscriptions being raised for the sufferers. This act was of course cleverly designed to turn the Greeks from any sympathy with the Macedonians. Finally, the Sultan personally assured the Armenian Patriarch that the imperial words of warning and aspiration applied to the Armenians as well as to the people of other nationalities. On the same day a document from the Macedonian headquarters in Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, was published, addressed to "Our Brethren in Macedonia and Adrianople," congratulating them upon the heroic fight waged thus far and calling their attention to the fact that "the dawn of liberty already peeps above the Macedonian horizon." Perhaps this phrase is pertinent after all, since the report persists, undenied, that Russia and Austria are contemplating a joint military occupation of the disturbed provinces. In the opinion of most observers such an occupation is bound to come, sooner or later. The fighting last week seems to have resulted in favor of the Turks; their estimate of the Bulgaro-Macedonians killed during the week is put at fifteen hundred. Naturally, no such number is quoted in the news from Bulgaria. It is thus impossible to trust any despatches emanating either from Constantinople or from Sofia. The revolution is now attracting more serious attention than before because the famous Orient express, running daily between Paris and Constantinople, has been suspended beyond Sofia.

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Turkey and America

Last week two very different accounts of the attempted shooting at Beirut of the American Vice-Consul Magelssen were received at Washington. One was from Chekib Bey, the Turkish Minister, in the form of a despatch from the Foreign Minister at Constantinople, who said that the pistol was fired on the occasion of a native marriage and in accordance with custom. The affair, he asserted, happened just as Mr. Magelssen was passing in his carriage. The other account came in a despatch to Secretary Hay from Mr. Ravendal, our Consul at Beirut: "The attempt on Magelssen's life failed utterly. A narrow escape, but the Vice-Consul suffered no injury." On Friday of last week the American

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war-ships, the Brooklyn and the San Francisco, arrived in the harbor of Beirut. An incidental testimony to conditions of safety in that town is contained in a letter to the New York "Evening Post" from Mr. Frederick Jones Bliss, late Explorer of the Palestine Exploration Fund. Mr. Bliss says that the conditions of danger have gradually developed during the last twenty years. "In 1883 the streets of Beirut were safe day and night—at that time Damascus was insecure. Now the conditions are reversed. Damascus is comparatively peaceful. Beirut is in a state to make possible such tragedies as this which has just brought sorrow to the American Consulate. . . . That the Turk can govern firmly and justly where he will is shown by the improved condition of Damascus." Turning to Constantinople, it is reported that a number of the Powers have landed marines for the protection of their embassies. An additional kavass, or detective, has also been stationed at the American Legation. This action was taken on the suggestion of the Turkish Foreign Minister, who has assured Mr. Leishman, the American Minister, that, while his Government will endeavor to protect all foreigners, it would be well to strengthen the force inside the Legation. Since then the Government has notified the Powers that it cannot guarantee the safety of their embassies and legations. The European Powers have station-ships in the port of Constantinople, but the United States has no authority to send a war-ship through the Dardanelles Straits to that city. We should have to ask the consent not only of Turkey, but also that of the European Powers, to do so. We do not share in the privileges guaranteed by the Turkish Dardanelles agreement with the Powers, prohibiting the passage of war-ships but permitting that of "light vessels in the service of the Legations of friendly Powers" and of Powers which have the right to station vessels at the mouth of the Danube. We trust, however, that, in case of necessity, the Powers will interpose no objection to the passage of the Dardanelles by one of our vessels, provided Turkey agrees. The prompt action already taken by our Government cannot fail, we think, to have some salutary influence in impressing upon the Sultan the fact that we will do all possible to protect our agents abroad. And a great deal is possible.

❀

The Chamberlain Controversy

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, British Colonial Secretary, is evidently in earnest in his conviction that the British Empire is in peril of disintegration and can be saved only by a policy of colonial preference. The controversy in England concerning this policy has now been heightened in interest by three important statements. In his own, Mr. Chamberlain declares:

> I have never suggested any tax whatever on raw materials, such as wool or cotton, and I believe that such a tax is entirely unnecessary for the purpose which I have in view—that is, for the mutual preference with our colonies and for enabling us to bargain for better terms with our foreign competitors. As regards food, there is nothing in the policy of the tariff reform which I have put before the country which need increase in the slightest degree the cost of living of any family in this country.

One might think at first from this letter that Mr. Chamberlain does not mean to tax the English people's food to help the colonists. But he does. We read in another letter from him that he expects to compensate any rise in food prices by a remission of taxes on certain other articles—sugar, tea, and tobacco, for instance—so as not to increase the cost of living. This is plainly an afterthought. When he first proposed his food-taxation scheme, the money was to be returned to the people through old-age pensions or some such social reform. At all events, he seemed to argue, "Exchange is no robbery." Unfortunately for Mr. Chamberlain, however, the proposed exchange is no exchange. The nutritive benefit from bread has a far greater value than that from sugar, tea, and tobacco. Referring to this, Sir William Harcourt, the Liberal leader, in a letter to the London "Times," says:

> All the ability of Mr. Chamberlain fails to convince the most simple amongst us that a serious rise in the price of corn will not enhance the cost of bread. . . . Man, he tells us, does not live on bread alone . . . but he

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cannot be reared on more cups of tea or even on cheaper tobacco.

Sir William justly insists that the taxation of food, on which Mr. Chamberlain's policy of colonial preference is founded, must irresistibly lead to a protective tariff on other things. He might have added that this would ultimately lead to the taxation of raw materials. A third striking letter has just been published. It is signed by fourteen professors of political economy. The professors deny the assertions that increased imports from abroad involve diminished work at home, and that a tax on food would not increase its price. The burden of proof thus rests with Mr. Chamberlain. He is leaving "a plain rule of taxation for the sake of revenue only," and seeks to obtain ulterior objects by the manipulation of tariffs. It may be, however, that the agitation which has come near wrecking the Unionist party will, after all, leave the mother country where she has stood for half a century. The by-election which has just taken place in the Scottish isles would indicate this. The candidate who stood for protection was beaten by an overwhelming majority.

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Roman Catholicism in France

The religious situation in France has now been made acuter because of four courageous but caustic speeches by M. Combes, the Premier. It may be that the recent attempt on his life at Marseilles goaded him to the use of words bearing a keener sting than ever to Roman Catholics in general. While we think it a pity that their indignation should be still further and perhaps unnecessarily aroused, their attention should certainly be called to the fact that the Premier's attacks are really directed only against the contumacious monastic orders and against those prelates and priests who have been disloyal to the Republic. Instead of acknowledging this, the Roman Catholics in France, as led by such universally respected leaders as the Count de Mun and M. Brunetière, for instance, seem bound to believe that M. Combes is attacking the Roman Catholic Church as a whole, if, indeed, he is not attacking all religion. It must be admitted that there is some justification for this. M. Combes is the official head of a Cabinet so radical that it will not pay decent respect to the memory of the late Pope. The executive head of the Government itself, M. Loubet—in most respects an ideal statesman for France, and certainly a noteworthy specimen of a self-made man—does not sink his prejudices enough to be present in church at the first communion of his own son. Behind the present President and Prime Minister stands the great Radical-Socialist party, for the vast majority a party of freethinkers. We applaud these men for insisting on liberty of thought, but we recognize the fact that they have shown themselves grossly unappreciative of the great conservative and often beneficial force in French society exercised, not by Roman Catholic monks, but by the priests, who for the most part are admirable in character and loyal to the State. The injury done, however, by the disloyalty and the degeneracy of the monks largely accounts for the numerical increase of the Radical-Socialist party. The drastic measures adopted by M. Combes in ridding France of the certainly objectionable monastic orders have now been impressively approved at the polls. The Government majorities both in the Chamber of Deputies and in the Senate have increased—in the latter body the number of anti-Ministerialists has fallen from forty-one to twenty-six, while the Ministerial group now numbers seventy.

❀

M. Combes's Crusade

This augmented Parliamentary majority is significant because the most serious accusations brought against M. Combes have been those, not from Royalists, Clericals, and other reactionaries, but from anti-Ministerialist Republicans, and even from ex-Premier Waldeck-Rousseau himself. M. Combes replied to these accusations that he had the legal right to submit to Parliament only those measures which refused the applications asked by the religious orders and to move the rejection of the applications *en bloc*, also that he had legally the power to close the schools opened before 1901 by govern-

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mentally authorized monastic orders. M. Combes did not mince matters. He spoke of his anti-monastic labors as a "crusade," and promised that "in a little while an end will be put to all education from members of religious bodies." As a substitute he would give "broad ideas, likely to make enlightened men," quite in line, we suppose, with those in Zola's "Vérité." To some observers this declaration must have seemed almost as dogmatic as those of the dogmatists whom M. Combes is fighting. It would have been a satisfaction to them, and also to all supporters of the separation of Church and State in France, if the Premier had laid down some definite plan concerning the reorganization of public education. That is likely to be the great question of the future in France. It cannot be decided by a deification of the State, such as is now being instituted by M. Buisson, the Director of Education, any more than it can be by the scorn of all religious work that characterizes the controlling political force in France to-day. For the sake of justice, in England as well as in France, we hope that an end will before long be put to the power of any particular Church in those lands over the public schools. The steadily increasing value to the State of the non-sectarian public schools of America, as developers of loyal and intelligent citizens, should be an object-lesson to all other countries.

❀

Mr. Carnegie on Steel

Whatever Mr. Andrew Carnegie says commands attention on both sides the Atlantic. Commercially speaking, his presidential address of last week at Barrow-in-Furness, England, before the Iron and Steel Institute, is particularly important. "In all matters of iron and steel," he said, "the child has been borne upon the shoulders of the parent. If the Atlantic Ocean had been prairie land, there would have been little left in the world but the conquering old lady and her family, all under one roof, under one flag, a self-sustaining empire, under free trade, with probably two hundred millions of our English-speaking race and a home market so great as to give control of neutral markets. No question of protection or preferential tariffs then to disturb us!" After this little fling at Mr. Chamberlain's proposed fiscal policy, Mr. Carnegie considered the Institute's meeting in Barrow twenty-nine years ago, and the report then made by the secretary upon the progress of iron and steel industries in foreign countries. "I naturally turned to see what he had to say about the United States. . . . In 1873 the Pennsylvania Steel Company made 20,000 tons of steel rails; they make that amount in two weeks now. The Bethlehem Iron Works were engaged in raising a loan of the enormous amount of $100,000 for the extension of their works; $5,000,000 would be comparatively less to-day. The great Cambria Iron Works . . . were credited with having made no less than 1027½ tons of ingots in the week ending September 26, the largest quantity ever made in a week—a day's work nowadays." Most observers appreciate the fact that the former work of a week is now done in a day; but, great as is that contrast, there is a greater one. Mr. Carnegie called the attention of his English auditors to the fact that hundreds of thousands of tons of four-inch steel billets are now being made and sold without loss at three pounds for a penny. His address is noteworthy because he thinks that the limit in price-reduction has now been reached. He adds that, owing to the lack of raw materials, the price is likely to become dearer. Nevertheless, in his opinion, the United States Steel Corporation, much the largest of steel producers, is supplied at its present rate of consumption for sixty years. This period, however, is nothing compared with the life of a nation. As Mr. Carnegie points out, the future of cheap steel manufacturing, even in America, depends upon future discoveries of iron ore. This should concern the inhabitants of Utah and Southern California, where deposits have been found.

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Secretary Shaw on Currency Expansion

Secretary Shaw's address at Chicago last week was in sharp contrast with his early reports and addresses on the subject of currency

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expansion. Formerly, it will be recalled, he advocated the plan of allowing the banks to issue more currency practically at their discretion and secured only by their assets. Last week he took the position that our currency was increasing fast enough, and that, if the banks were permitted to add more in times of emergency, the additions should be limited to fifty per cent. of their bond-secured circulation, be subject to a five per cent. tax to compel retirement as soon as the emergency had passed, and be "underwritten" or guaranteed by the Government so that the new issue would everywhere be acceptable. It hardly needs to be added that The Outlook agrees with Secretary Shaw's present position as thoroughly as it disagreed with that which he formerly advocated. The issue of money is primarily a government function; it is the duty of the government to insure the goodness of all the money it permits to circulate, and the needed elasticity is not to be secured by permitting banks to increase the currency in times of prosperity, when credits are easy, prices high, and interest low, but by permitting the increase of it in times of emergency, when credit is hard to get, prices fall, and interest rises. The stipulation that emergency currency shall be subject to a five per cent. tax insures that it shall be issued only during the emergency and retired as soon as the emergency has passed. The plan has worked admirably in Germany, and there is no reason why it should not work admirably here.

❀

Real Home Rule in Denver

Denver is trying an experiment which will be watched with interest throughout the country. It has been allowed municipal home rule on a larger scale than has been granted anywhere else in this country. A year or more ago the Legislature proposed and passed for submission to the people of the State a Constitutional amendment (known as the Rush Amendment) making the city of Denver and the county of Arapahoe coextensive, and giving the enlarged city thus formed power to frame and adopt its own charter. This amendment, though bitterly opposed by the franchise-enjoying corporations, was adopted. Then an attempt was made to defeat it in the courts, and that failed. Then the corporations tried to elect a friendly charter convention; but the people refused to be misled by partisan cries, and elected a "Citizens'" ticket, which the Republican organization was shrewd enough to accept and indorse. And now the convention has completed its work, which will be submitted to the people on September 22. The fundamental idea of the new charter is that the city shall be free to act for itself except upon matters specifically reserved for State action. Heretofore, as a rule, cities have only had the powers specifically granted them. The Council proposed consists of ten members elected at large for four years. The initiative, referendum, and Constitutional mandate and recall have been incorporated—the four-year term being thought to require that constituencies be allowed to instruct and even recall their representatives. Every officer and employee, excepting the elective officers, heads of departments and one employee of each, and the professional assistants of the Corporation Counsel, is placed in the classified service and upon the merit system. Franchises may be granted only upon the vote of the tax-paying electors. The present prospects all point to the adoption of the charter.

❀

Mr. Bryan Indorses a Gold Democrat

The Democratic State Convention in Pennsylvania last week—which adopted the usual platform condemning the Quay machine, demanding the needed reform in the registration laws, and asking the voters to ignore National issues in a purely State election—had much less National interest and significance than the statement given out by Mr. Bryan at Columbus, Ohio, in support of John H. Clarke, the Gold Democrat nominated by the recent State Convention for United States Senator. Mr. Clarke's nomination, it may be recalled, was made only after a bitter contest, and the opposition to his nomination among the free-coinage voters

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seemed to be even more pronounced than that expressed in the Convention. Mr. Bryan's statement is expected to allay the disaffection of his more extreme supporters and at the same time is thought to lay down the lines upon which, in his opinion, the radical Democracy and those who left the party solely because of opposition to the free coinage of silver may be reunited. Its most significant passages regarding Mr. Clarke's right to Democratic support are as follows:

To oppose him because of his action in 1896, in spite of the fact that he helped us heartily in 1900, in spite of the fact that he has supported Johnson in all his reforms, in spite of the fact that he is now helping us on everything except one phase of one question, would be unreasonable and unjust.

He has long advocated the election of Senators by a direct vote—a reform without which other reforms are impossible. He is opposed to government by injunction, and this question is a good test of his sympathies. He is in favor of an income tax—another proof that he is not the representative of plutocracy. His views on imperialism and the tariff are sound and in line with Democratic principles.

His one difference is on one phase of the money question—namely, metallic money—and on this question I believe he was grievously in error in 1896. But since that time the arguments made in favor of a larger volume of money have been vindicated. On the more acute phases of the money question I believe he will be found in entire harmony with the Kansas City platform Democrats. I cannot conceive of his supporting an asset currency or the Aldrich Bill, neither do I believe he would support the Republican measures which provide for branch banks and for making the silver dollar redeemable in gold.

While we might prefer some other Democrat to him, we certainly must prefer him to a Republican, especially when the Legislature that will elect him will also give the people home rule, cheaper railroad fares, and more equitable taxation.

This declaration is expected to have an important effect upon the pending campaign in Ohio, where Mr. Bryan's remarkable hold upon the rural districts enabled him in 1896, despite defections in the cities, to poll over seventy thousand more votes than Mr. Cleveland or even President Harrison had received four years before. If the rural supporters of Mr. Bryan can be effectively rallied to the polls to support Mr. Johnson, the Republican majority will be materially reduced. The more important effect of Mr. Bryan's statement, however, is the definite shelving of the silver issue, so long as expanding currency and higher prices continue to prevail under the present system.

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Samuel J. Parks Released

Samuel J. Parks, the walking delegate of the New York Housesmiths' Union, who was lately convicted of the crime of extortion and sentenced to Sing Sing prison by Recorder Goff, was last week released upon a certificate of reasonable doubt issued by Justice Sewall, of the Supreme Court in Brooklyn. The Brooklyn Justice is reported to have said that had the case been tried before him he should not have permitted it to go to the jury, since Parks was not proven guilty of the crime of extortion as defined in the code. For issuing this certificate Justice Sewall has been violently denounced by some of the ultra-conservative New York papers—the "Times" going so far as to characterize the Judge's reported statement as a "witch-broth of demagogy." Such criticism is clearly out of place, and its effect, if any, will be to help Parks, against whom it is aimed. Judge Sewall's decision is to be reviewed by a higher court. His reason for making it could hardly have been the demagogue's motive of wishing to pander to the view of the crowd. Indeed, public opinion in New York has been so strongly against Parks that his attorneys appealed for change of venue in the case on the ground that he could not get a fair trial in a city where the newspaper attacks upon him had created such intense popular prejudice. The motion for trial in another county has not yet been passed upon, and intemperate criticism of Judge Sewall might easily lead to a favorable decision upon it. In trades-unions circles the attacks upon Parks have given him the rôle of a martyr. Even before Judge Sewall's certificate was issued Parks's union had voted to continue his salary while in prison, and those in charge of the Labor Day Parade had voted that Parks's horse, even without its rider, should head the procession. When

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Parks returned from Sing Sing he was met by a great crowd of admirers, and escorted through the city. Ex-Police Commissioner Devery, who went on his bail, has been given a place of honor in the housesmiths' phalanx of the parade. The Parks trial, as we stated two weeks ago, was disappointing to all who hoped that it would rid the labor movement of one of its betrayers. The weakness of the prosecution was only exceeded by the weakness of the defense. From the first it was evident that the trial had not convinced Parks's friends of his guilt, and now it appears to have made of him a class hero. The other indictments against him ought to be pressed, so that his character may be determined beyond "reasonable doubt."

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The Responsibility for Disasters

Intense and wide public interest was felt in the trial on the charge of manslaughter at Newark last week of the directors of the North Jersey Street Railway Company. Among the defendants were Mr. Cassatt, President of the Pennsylvania Railroad, John D. Crimmins, the well-known New York capitalist, Mr. Young, the President of the street railway, its vice-president, and several directors. The general interest in this case is justified, not only by fierce indignation at the criminal carelessness on the part of some one which resulted in the death of nine schoolchildren, but because the case involved legal questions of vital and far-reaching importance. The verdict of "Not guilty" was given by the jury at the direction of the judge. The position taken by the court is clear and apparently sound: it held, in brief, that the superior officers of such a corporation as a street railway cannot be held criminally responsible (suits for damages are of course quite another matter) unless it can be shown that they have been guilty personally of something amounting to criminal neglect in the premises. Thus, if the officers devise a proper system, furnish proper appliances, and issue proper rules for the management of a railway crossing, the fact that employees disregard these rules or neglect the mechanical appliances does not make the superior officers criminally guilty unless they can be shown to have been aware of the misconduct of their employees, either actually or constructively. And the court held that in this particular case the evidence of the prosecution did not establish actual or constructive criminal negligence. If the view of the court be admitted as sound in law, it remains true, if the safety of the public is to be properly protected, that at some point in the official system of the company direct responsibility must begin; in the present case, for instance, it is perfectly clear that some official, either a superintendent or an inspector or a district officer, should have known that at this point safety was not insured, and that the rules of the company, made to secure safety, were being disregarded. It is for the public prosecutor, it seems to us, to determine in whom such responsibility rests, and not to conclude because of such a decision as has just been given that no responsibility rests with any one excepting the employees actually concerned in the accident itself. In other words, the prosecution should not desist, because of this decision, from attempting to place severe and exemplary punishment upon the highest officials who can legally be shown to be directly responsible for the frightful loss of life. Moreover, the lesson of such a disaster is not merely that punishment should be inflicted, but that provision should be made to prevent similar catastrophes. If we are not misinformed, there is nothing like a proper supervision of grade-crossings in the suburban towns of New Jersey, and there is no railway commission appointed by the State whose duty it is to inspect railways with a view to insuring public safety. Such a commission exists in New York, and has very broad, even if not completely adequate, powers. When will New Jersey deal with this subject thoroughly and practically?

❀

A Missionary Murdered

The circumstances attending the murder of Mr. Planving at Oscar, Louisiana, are such as to call for the most rigorous investigation. The honor of the community and of the State requires that

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the deed should be brought home to its perpetrators, and that it should be seen that no sympathy with them exists among the people of the vicinity. The reports sent out from Louisiana, after a singularly incomplete statement of the deliberate killing of this missionary by persons unknown, add:

> Planving had been making incendiary speeches to the negroes of the community, advising them not to work for or to have anything to do with white people, and it is believed that these alleged utterances had much to do with the assassination. Booker T. Washington was to visit Oscar next month as the guest of Planving and deliver a series of lectures.

Those acquainted with Mr. Planving, his work and his character, confidently assert that the first part of this statement is absolutely false. Laforest A. Planving was a colored man whose admixture of negro blood was slight. In his early life he worked faithfully on plantations, saved money, went to Straight University, was graduated there, and devoted his life to the education and elevation of his people in the place where he was born. The officers of the American Missionary Association assure us that he was the exact opposite of an agitator or trouble-maker, that he was gentle, quiet, and anxious to secure the co-operation and friendship of the white people. The following statement by Mr. Ryder, the Secretary of the American Missionary Association, brings home most forcefully the atrocity of the murder of this true-hearted man:

> He went into the parish where he was born, and conferred freely with the white citizens as to their judgment in respect to the wisdom of opening an industrial institution for negro boys and girls. They fully approved of it and indorsed him. He often spoke in great appreciation of their cordial support, and said again and again that no trouble could come between him and the white people, for they were thoroughly sympathetic in his work. He was a manly, straightforward man of fine appearance, of intellectual and moral earnestness, and well qualified for the leadership of his people. He had established an excellent work among them, was as upright and conscientious a citizen as there was in Louisiana, and was devoting himself not only to the interests of his people but to the welfare of the State and Nation. It seems a most cruel thing that such a man should be murdered. After receiving information of Mr. Planving's death, the President of the American Missionary Association, the Rev. Washington Gladden, D.D., LL.D., sent a calm and dispassionate letter to Governor W. W. Heard, of Louisiana, which it is hoped will have prompt and considerate attention. In "Congregational Work" for September a somewhat extensive statement concerning Mr. Planving and his work was printed, having been prepared before his death.

Full reports of the cause and manner of this cowardly assassination may show that it was the work of one or two vicious men, not a direct or indirect outcome of general race-hatred; if so, the people of the vicinity where it took place can best show their disapproval by the instant arrest and stern prosecution of the assassins.

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Arts and Crafts

The Society of Arts and Crafts at Hingham, Massachusetts, gave its second annual exhibition in the rooms of the Derby Academy late in August, and again demonstrated the fact that if facilities for business are provided, business appears. There were people living in the ancient colonial town who had the artistic sense and were willing to work—and nobody knew it. Not even all of the craftsmen and women knew it, for, while there was one designer and maker of furniture who had unusual artistic skill, a few needlewomen, a blacksmith, and one man who had preserved the traditions of the famous Hingham "piggins" and woodenware, the majority of the townspeople knew nothing of the latent talent in the town. The Society's exhibition thus became a revelation and an avenue for new and unexpected business—a new appreciation for artistic work. The well-filled rooms of the old school-house were a surprise and a discovery. Here were men and women, friends and neighbors, who were artists in wood, in fine needlework, weaving, rug-making, bead-work, copper-work, basket-making, in the chemistry of vegetable dyes, in toy-making, cabinet-work, iron-work, and, most curious of all, candle-making. From an inspection of the exhibition it was plain that the Society had set a high standard in design, workmanship, and materials. The things all showed a real sense of beauty of form and color, and included

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domestic linens embroidered in excellent designs, all the famous wooden tubs, buckets, etc., of Hingham design, pale green bayberry candles of aromatic flame—the very light of Bay Settlement nights—toys that can be handed down unbroken through whole "family steps" of children, fascinating bead-work, fine fabrics from hand-looms, desks, clock-cases, fire-irons, colonial perforated lanterns, and baskets in every variety of form and of colonial dyers' colors. So wide was the range of work exhibited and so excellent was it all in design and workmanship that the exhibition was an artistic as well as a business success. The Hingham Society of Arts and Crafts was established in 1901, and has done good work because it discovered new skill and inspired those who wished to work to learn more and do more by bringing them in touch with the buying public. Through its simple business machinery it created business and inspired to artistic workmanship. Much of the work it exhibited is peculiar to Hingham. Any one interested in its method of conducting its affairs and wishing to learn more of its special handicrafts can address the President, Mr. Louis C. Cornish, or the Secretary, Miss Susan B. Willard, Hingham, Massachusetts.

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Meeting of the National Forestry Association

At the annual convention of the National Forestry Association held in Minneapolis August 25–26, nearly every representative forester of the country was present, and the aims of the Association were well set forth. Two of Minneapolis's prominent lumbermen, T. B. Walker and B. F. Nelson, were also present, and gave voice to their side of the problems discussed. Edward A. Bowers, Secretary of the Association, spoke on the Future of the National Forest Reserves, and said among other things: "The future of the Federal forest reservations will be assured when there is a better understanding among the people generally of the purposes of their creation than existed at the outset of the movement. The idea that these reservations are to be used for the National good will steadily gain them friends. Now the idea is too generally prevalent that these reservations are parks for the pleasure of the people and for the protection of game. These are only incidental advantages. In due time we may reasonably hope to see systematic forest management extend over the whole of the United States, taking the place of the wasteful, careless, and destructive methods now prevailing in the utilizing of our forest resources." The present method of taxing timber crops was characterized by Dr. C. Alvin Schenck, forester of the Vanderbilt estate in North Carolina, as quite as unjust as it would be to tax the farmer's standing crop. Some other basis of taxation than the present should be adopted. General C. C. Andrews, Chief Fire Warden of Minnesota, believes that no right-thinking member of Congress should be content to allow the present stone and timber act to remain in force. Some of our most valuable tracts of timber have been for years and are now being secured by logging companies, he said, through the operation of this and of the homestead law, by means of false affidavits. To remedy these evils he advocates that the remaining public timber on non-agricultural lands be constituted forest reserves and administered on forestry principles. Attorney-General Douglas, of Minnesota, reported that out of ten thousand small pines transplanted in denuded portions of Itasca Park, 85 per cent. are growing, showing the success of reforestation. Herman H. Chapman, Superintendent of the Northern Experiment Farm at Grand Rapids, Michigan, denounced it as all wrong to sell, for agricultural purposes, lands from which jack and Norway pine had been cut, as failure was sure to be the result. Such lands were fit only for reforestation. Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson gave an address upon the work of his department in the line of forestry. In brief, he said: Science is succeeding in preserving the quick-growing, soft woods that make large trees in thirty or forty years, so that they can be used for ties. Experience with the coal supply admonishes us that we should grow fuel material, which can

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easily be done on lands that, for various reasons, are not adapted to cultivation. The Department of Agriculture is training foresters who are making research into planting and preserving. We are sending out young trees to help induce the planting habit, with information regarding propagation. Our pine woods are rapidly disappearing. Our last great resource is in the northwest corner of the United States, and seven hundred sawmills are busy with its destruction. This is a problem requiring the immediate attention of all our people.

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The Ascent of Sorata

The telegraph has brought the news that the ascent of Mount Sorata in Bolivia, attempted in vain by Sir Martin Conway and others, has at last been accomplished for the first time by an American woman, Miss Annie S. Peck. The expedition organized and led by Miss Peck was sent out under the auspices of The Outlook, although individuals interested in scientific exploration also contributed to its expenses. In due time the story of Miss Peck's remarkable achievement, with her own photographs, will be laid before The Outlook's readers. The expedition was planned, not only to carry out a most difficult feat of mountain-climbing, but for purposes of scientific and archæological study, and the ascent of Sorata was only one of the objects in view. Miss Peck was accompanied by Professor W. G. Tight, of the University of New Mexico, and by a Swiss guide who was with Sir Martin Conway in his attempt on Sorata; the party carried cameras, scientific instruments, and were prepared to manufacture oxygen for use to counteract the effects of the rarefied air. Sorata is believed by Miss Peck, by Professor Pickering, of the Harvard Observatory, and by Sir Martin Conway to be the highest peak, not only of the Andes, but of the Western Hemisphere; there are, it should be added, several claimants to these honors, and it was partly to solve the problem that the ascent was undertaken. There can be no question that Miss Peck's success in a feat of mountaineering which has hitherto baffled all attempts puts her at the head of American woman mountaineers; she already had to her credit the extremely difficult ascent of Orizaba, that of Popocatepetl, and the now less arduous ascent of the Matterhorn and other famous Swiss peaks. A letter from Miss Peck, dated at La Pas, Bolivia, July 22, states that while Dr. Tight was somewhat the worse from an ascent of 14,666 feet in thirty hours, she had experienced only a slight headache—an indication of the surprising endurance often before displayed by this apparently slight and almost delicate woman. Miss Peck adds:

> To-day I see Sorata in the distance. It is magnificent. All covered with snow. Lauber, the guide, who is used to Alpine peaks, says it looks formidable; more so than he expected. Maguignaz, the chief guide, is stolid. "I will reach the summit whether any one else does or not," says he. I say nothing. We may be delayed a long time by the snow.

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The Reliance's Victory

There was a feeling of relief on all sides when the final race of the yachts, postponed more than once by too little or too much wind, came to its foregone conclusion on Friday of last week. The Reliance had so shown its superiority at all points of sailing in the various races and trials that even the cheerful and plucky Sir Thomas Lipton openly admitted that the Shamrock III. was outclassed, and observers generally agree that she was also outsailed. English critics accept the result gracefully, as a rule; some mildly protest that the system of measuring did not really balance fairly the size, type, and length of the yachts, others hold that the Sandy Hook course at this time of year is not a good one for such races; but, generally, the opinion is expressed that American yacht designers (or at least one firm of designers, the Herreshoffs) are so superior to English designers that for a while at least the attempt to recapture the America's Cup would better be abandoned. In a witty and genial after-dinner speech, however, Sir Thomas intimated strongly that he was not prepared to abandon his policy of "try, try again." The race of Friday was a peculiar one in that the Shamrock, already

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hopelessly in the rear of the Reliance, lost her way in the fog and did not cross the finish line at all.

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Where Reform Touches the Home

In a city like New York, where only one family in nine owns its home, it is a relatively difficult matter to interest the other eight in administrative reform. Questions of city economy and a lower tax rate do not immediately concern them, for they believe—and with reason—that a lower tax rate very slowly, if at all, brings a reduction in rents. They have not, therefore, the direct incentive to a jealous oversight of municipal extravagance and corruption that prods to good citizenship a majority of the voters in the small towns and the rural districts. If, as happens under Tammany Hall, those who profit by the extravagance and corruption use a fraction of their profits in the relief of distress among their neighbors—helping them in case of sickness or death or loss of work—the latter are prompted to indifference as to the methods by which their relief funds are provided. The advantages of reform seem remote and problematical if the reformers aim merely at economy. Reforms become truly popular only when the results of honesty are used in the service of humanity.

The reformers realized this during the administration of Mayor Strong, and in two departments at least established new standards of public service which Tammany Hall even under Mayor Van Wyck never dared openly to set aside. The Strong administration gave to this city its first high-school system, and Tammany Hall had no alternative but to carry it forward. Its own most loyal supporters would not have tolerated the restoration to New York of its long-time distinction of being the only American city without a high school. The Strong administration also, through Colonel Waring, cleaned the streets of the East Side, and while Tammany allowed this work shamefully to deteriorate, it never restored the conditions which preceded the Strong administration, and the voters of the tenement-house districts, to their credit, noted the shortcomings and registered at the polls two years ago their emphatic rebuke.

The Low administration along both of these lines has carried forward with vigor the work which the Strong administration had begun, and it has at the same time developed new lines of work, demonstrating that it is not only the friend of virtue, but also, more than Tammany Hall, the friend of the common citizen.

In other issues of The Outlook we shall call attention to other phases of this work. In this issue we wish to fix attention upon a single phase of it, admirably described by one of our contributors on another page. Miss Sayles's article shows in a concrete and personal way the method in which the new Tenement Department touches life in the poorer quarters of the city. No recent innovation in city government anywhere promises to accomplish such vast results in lifting up the standards of living among the poor—and the raising of the standards of living is the surest intellectual guarantee of a higher civilization.

When the new Department began its work, its inspectors were received with distrust by the tenement-house population. The latter were afraid to make complaints—and with good reason. In their experiences with the Tammany Health Department, which formerly had charge of the abatement of nuisances in tenement-houses, the officials had generally sided with the landlords. On that side were influence and the chance of perquisites. The writer recalls one occasion when he stepped into a little hardware store on Avenue A and found the merchant talking to another customer about the flooding of his cellar from a broken sewer-pipe in the cellar adjoining—which was underneath a saloon. The fumes that arose from the filth below were simply foul, and the writer asked the merchant why he did not complain to the Board of Health. The merchant replied that he had done so days before, and that no attention had been paid to his complaint. When an appeal to the newspapers was suggested,

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he replied that he had gone to the "Recorder," but that the manager had asked him to swear that the saloon-keeper had a "pull." "I am pretty sure he has," said the merchant, "but of course I don't know that he has." The writer sent a note to a friend who was city editor of the "Evening Post," and a column article describing the abuse promptly appeared. When the writer saw the merchant again, a few weeks later, he asked whether anything had been done about his cellar, and the reply was: "Oh, yes; there was a big write-up about it in one of the papers, and the next day the Board of Health men came around and turned out every tenant in the next building *except the saloon-keeper.*" This of course was an extreme instance, but the cases in which the complaining tenant was evicted by the offending landlord were relatively so frequent that few tenants dared complain. The new Department found that the anonymous letter was as essential to the free expression of tenement-house opinion as the anonymous or secret ballot is to the free expression of public opinion. Without its protection the poor could not be heard. The Department has so thoroughly convinced the dwellers in tenements that it can be trusted by them that upwards of two thousand complaints are now sent to it every month—all of which are promptly investigated. Thus the people of the tenement-houses have been enlisted as officers for the enforcement of the law—an important matter in a democratic government.

Of the work of the new Department in maintaining and enforcing the laws regulating the construction of new tenements we had occasion to speak at length when these laws were unsuccessfully attacked a few months ago. The protest that then came from the poorer sections of the city against the modification of the new code showed that this legislation to defend the healthfulness and cleanliness and decency of the homes of the poor had obtained a hold upon the heart of the people. Even the party Socialists admitted that in this instance the "bourgeois" government had put the interests of humanity above the demands of conscienceless commercialism. The work of the reform government for the defense of the family had gone home, and the tenement-house population recognized the fact that a new force was at work for them and with them.

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The Teuton and the Slav

Last week's absorption by Russia of timber concessions in Manchuria close to the Korean border hardly indicates, it seems, any preparation to evacuate that province on October 8, as she has pledged, even though that might mean nothing more than to retire her thousands of soldiers from certain points in the province to certain other points on her Manchurian railway, which, by treaty, she is allowed to protect.

Last week, according to the generally trustworthy London "Times," the secret circular issued by the Russian Minister of the Interior to the Governors of Russian provinces, suggesting measures against the Jewish Zionists, shows the confidence we can place in his open letter of the week before to them, in which he apparently countenances their movements.

Again last week the additional expulsion of prominent Finnish subjects, who have resisted the outrageous oppression now exercised in Finland, exhibits the fidelity of the present Czar to the solemn oaths which he and his ancestors for generations have sworn to respect Finnish autonomy.

Finally, last week, according to a Russian paper published outside of Russia, General Dragomirov, Governor of Kiev, resigned his powerful and lucrative office as a protest against the continual employment of troops to massacre political malcontents and defenseless citizens. Repeated reports indicate that strikes were deliberately fomented from St. Petersburg so that they might be exemplarily repressed.

These events, together with the Russian Government's shameful record of provocation in the Kishenev massacres and its still more shameful prison record in Siberia, seem to us symptomatic of a persistent policy both of indirection and

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of oppression. We question whether, in the long run, with all their faults, such indirection and oppression would be characteristic of Teutonic peoples. If a world conflict should ever arise between these and the Slav States, the ultimate cause will be, in our opinion, the differences in national character, differences between the Oriental man and the Occidental man, between a tendency towards indirection, dissimulation, autocracy, oppression, bigotry, fanaticism, and a tendency towards frankness, freedom, liberty, democracy, sanity, justice. In this conflict we know that not all the bad would be found on one side, not all the good on the other. Russia might show, were she so minded, certain surely strong and, to her, sufficient reasons for her deeds. Nicholas II. can also justly and proudly claim for himself the establishment of that most inspiring of modern political institutions—the Hague International Court of Arbitration. On the other hand, the Teutonic Powers are not without stain. Note their apathy regarding Armenia eight years ago and regarding Macedonia today. A quarter of a century ago Russia liberated Macedonia (only to have the Powers restore the province to the Turk), and in 1895 would have liberated Armenia but for disunion in Europe. However, in a future conflict on the one side may be ranged England, Germany, Scandinavia, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Hungary, and America; on the other, the vast Russian Empire and such presumably tributary Slav States as Bohemia, Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and perhaps Croatia. As to the Latin Powers, rightly or wrongly, we have come to regard them as a negligible quantity in the final result. So far as they may be of help or hindrance to the Slav, however, it would seem as if France and Spain might always be susceptible to a Russian alliance, while Italy and Portugal might be, as now, if not of direct aid to the Teutonic races, at all events neutral.

Secondly, such a conflict would be between the greatest land power and the greatest sea power. The patent policy of Russia—the land power—is to absorb territory till she reaches her desired goal—ice-free ports on the Pacific, the Persian Gulf, the Mediterranean, and the Atlantic. To do this as she wishes she must control North China and Korea, Persia, Turkey-in-Europe, and Scandinavia. China and Persia have long stood apart from the general current of world movements, but Russia has compelled the one and is compelling the other to re-enter that current. She has already obtained certain ports on the Pacific, and expects to obtain others. In Persia she now has a commercial and political ascendency outdistancing that of any other Power. As to Turkey-in-Europe, the revolutionary events now happening with startling rapidity seem to us only paving the way for her control. As to Scandinavia, Russia has hardly done more than to foment Norwegian discontent and to project roads which shall connect with Norwegian ports, one day to be Russian, if they can be made such. Thus the extension of this giant land empire goes on steadily. But the extension of the sea power of the Teutonic races, a still mightier force, also goes on steadily. The two forces have been often antagonistic, and may become yet more antagonistic.

Finally, such a conflict would be not only between differences in national character and in land and sea acquisition. Indeed, the conflict is already upon us. It is between the divergent commercial ideals of the Teuton and the Slav. Teutonic oversea extension is not mere political ambition; Slavic land extension is no mere territorial hunger. Both find a common root in a desire for commercial power. Trade is now the dominant world-factor. But what kind of trade? Exclusive, says Russia. Free, says England. The first ideal moves Russia to seek new ports from which she can export her protected goods. It moves her, whenever she acquires a new province, to adopt a highly protective policy toward foreign industries, thus injuring the countries with which the province may have had commercial relations. In the latter case we think she acts narrow-mindedly; but we must admit that she acts naturally, because she is considering a continuous territory and population

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as insuring eventual exclusive influence. On the other hand, the second ideal has impelled England to establish distant colonies, and, whenever possible, to inculcate the greatest freedom of trade. This example has brought other Powers to a larger and more generous colonial policy. We are glad to add that, though still bound by a bigoted tariff at home, the ideal of fairer trade abroad has now disposed our own Government to obtain the opening of new ports on the Asiatic coast, not to the exclusive trade of the particular Power in control, but to the trade of all the world.

This policy, as exemplified by the present Administration, is also the best world policy. It minimizes the chances of conflict between the natural desires of Russia whenever the manner of their execution is contrary to the interests of the Teuton States. Our leverage in world politics—for the United States is a world power—means no exclusive individual ambition, but a conciliatory adjustment on all sides for the preservation of what is best in trade. And that is called The Open Door. Only that will prevent a possibly armed conflict one day between the Teuton and the Slav.

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Concerning Skepticism

That tendency of a democratic age toward large generalizations, of which De Tocqueville has spoken, affects religious life, and leads the Church to put together experiences very widely different, label them all skepticism, and treat them as though they all had a common cause and a common character. In fact, the skepticisms of the twentieth century are very varied, both in their nature and in the spirit which produces them; and the minister and, what is perhaps more important, the Christian teacher and the Christian parent, will make little progress in dealing with these cognate but widely different experiences unless they learn to distinguish between them. There may have been some truth in the current notion of a hundred years ago that immorality was the cause of infidelity; but if by infidelity is meant rejection of the current beliefs of the Christian Church, it is no longer true that this is produced only by immoral and lawless desires. Some men of the noblest ethical natures the Church has, carelessly rather than malignantly, entitled infidels. Without attempting here a complete classification of the modern types of skepticism, we may, by way of illustration, indicate certain of the more clearly marked classes into which skepticism may be divided.

The French Anarchist who said, "We have no use for God," furnishes a rude illustration of one type of skepticism. Democracy tends to the apotheosis of humanity; and that in time to the abolition of the idea of God. The doctrine that the majority furnish the only political standard of right and wrong cannot easily be reconciled with the idea that there is a standard of righteousness quite independent of human wills, except on the notion that the majority are infallible in their moral discernment of this divine standard; and practically the notion of human omniscience is as godless as the notion of human omnipotence. One is as egotistic as the other. While there are few if any men of culture who would express themselves as naïvely as the French Anarchist, there are a great many Americans who secretly resent the idea that there is a will stronger than their own will; that they *must* submit themselves to a higher order. Obedience to a power mightier than the mightiest—against this they secretly rebel. It is quite idle to argue against this type of skepticism. It is not founded on argument and is not amenable to argument. It is not infrequently found mated to a very orthodox creed. It is the inspiration of prayers the object of which is to conform the divine will to the human will, and to make God the ally and abettor of man in his egoistic enterprises. It is the infidelity of Pharisaism. Only the hard experiences of life can cure it; and it is always uncertain whether the effect of such experiences will be to remedy or to embitter the skepticism which proceeds from a proud, egotistic, and unsubmissive spirit.

Quite different, both in its source and

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in its character, is the skepticism which grows out of a cultured and aristocratic contempt for the common experiences of the plain people. Religion in its last analysis is fellowship with God. This fellowship is not dependent on wealth or social position, scholarship or intellectual ability, culture or refinement. It is open to all who sincerely and supremely desire soul-fellowship in order that they may do God's work in God's way. It is more easily attained by the poor than by the rich, by the lowly than by the high. This is not because wealth, scholarship, and culture are in themselves an obstacle, but because the pride of wealth, of scholarship, of culture, is an insuperable obstacle. It is not strange, therefore, that men whose standards of life are those of position, of intellectual attainment, or of social and literary culture should disbelieve in an experience which is independent of these standards and quietly assumes to be superior to them. An experience which is possible to a shepherd of Salisbury Plain is looked on with contempt by a man who measures character by "success;" an experience possible to a John Bunyan appears irrational to one who measures character by scholarly attainment; and an experience which may find expression in the music of a Moody and Sankey hymn seems vulgar to one whose standards of life are æsthetic. To urge upon such minds that religious experience must be founded on truth because it is universal is but to reinforce their condemnation of religious experience. For to such minds whatever is universal appears to be common and unclean. In this lies the secret of the literary skepticism which is quite as characteristic of our age as the scientific skepticism of which much more is said. It is a product of a democratic age because it is an aristocratic reaction against the democratic spirit. It can be met only by a frank and bold challenge of the standards which these judges of religion have set up; by the denial that either success, scholarship, or culture is the true test of character; by glorying with Paul in the democracy of Christianity, in the fact that God hath chosen the foolish things of the world to confound the wise. The minister who truckles to wealth and position, the teacher who exalts scholarship above character, the parent who puts up in his home an altar to culture, will argue in vain for a religion which is as possible to the poor as to the rich, to the ignorant as to the educated, and to the uncultivated as to the refined.

Quite different in its nature and in the causes which produce it is that skepticism which is the product of a too great concentration on the material aspects of life. By such concentration one loses the capacity if not the inclination for the life that is immaterial and spiritual. Faith is just as much a human faculty, and just as dependent for its power on cultivation and exercise, as are memory, reason, and observation. The metaphysician who devotes all his energies to studying the inner life, the recluse who devotes them all to meditating upon invisible things, loses the power of keen and quick observation of external things. Similarly, the man who devotes all his energies to dealing with the material world loses the power of perceiving the immaterial and invisible world. A commercial age, which absorbs the energies of men in great industrial enterprises, produces first an indifference toward the spiritual life and then an incapacity for it. Many a man absorbed by his business enterprises loses his power to enjoy literature, music, or art, and similarly his capacity for what we ordinarily call religion. His spiritual faculties become atrophied from disuse; he grows indifferent to and finally incapacitated for companionship with his fellow-men, and—for the same reason and by the same process—indifferent to and incapacitated for companionship with his God. There are mere money-making machines who have no use for God because they cannot try their hand at making a bargain with him. There are others—and we think the number is large—who are more than mere money-making machines, who see in money an element of power and an instrument of usefulness, and who, alike in their acquisition and their expenditure, are governed by

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considerations of the highest honor; whose integrity is above all criticism, and whose beneficence is as unostentatious as it is generous, but who have nevertheless lost their power of vision. They have grown near-sighted because they have never focused their eyes on the distant horizon. Such men are necessarily either wholly skeptical concerning the reality of spiritual experiences which they do not possess, or believe in them only at second hand and on the report of others. Tragic is it when such a man, of high ethical principles and warm affections, but with lost power of vision, loses by death the wife or child who is dear to him, and turns to his minister with the cry, Give me a demonstration of immortality. He asks for the impossible. He has so long fixed his eyes on the mortal and the visible that he no longer has the power to see the immortal and the invisible. The most that the minister can hope to do with such men is to convince them, on the testimony of others, that there is an invisible and eternal world, though they have condemned themselves to live without the sight of it.

Very much of the same nature is what is called the scientific skepticism of the age. In an oft-quoted passage, Mr. Darwin laments that he had devoted himself so exclusively to scientific pursuits as to lose his early love for literature and music. In this case the atrophy of the æsthetic faculties was accompanied by a splendid maintenance of the ethical faculties. The history of the Christian Church affords no finer illustration than the history of science affords in Mr. Darwin of a simple love of truth, a passionate devotion to it, a wholly unegotistical spirit, and a consequent candor of statement rare if not unparalleled in literature, either scientific or religious. As much cannot be said for Mr. Huxley; for though his ethical ideas were of the highest, his ecclesiastical prejudices made it impossible for him to believe in the reality of spiritual experiences which he did not possess. He buttressed and sustained his unbelief by the philosophical assumption that all knowledge is derived from the senses, and that we cannot know anything which is not scientifically demonstrable from observed phenomena. He translated into a dogma that which with Darwin and Tyndall was but a habit, and insisted that what he could see of life was all that there is to see. This philosophical argument for agnosticism can be met by philosophical argument; but the agnosticism which employs it as an advocate can never be overcome by reasoning, since it is not primarily a conviction of the reason but a habit of the mind.

There is one other phase of so-called skepticism which demands at least a reference, though we cannot give to it here the consideration which it deserves. It is what we shall call the skepticism of faith: the skepticism of those spiritual natures to whom the invisible world is so real and so near that the traditional interpreters of it are an intrusion and an obstacle. Such a skeptic was James Martineau in the nineteenth century, Martin Luther in the sixteenth, Savonarola in the twelfth, Paul in the first. These men and others like them in all ages have been called unbelievers, not because they did not believe enough, but because they believed too much. They refused to accept the dogmas in which the faith of the world had been enshrined, because their own faith had outgrown these dogmas. As he who can read a French book with ease declines to read a translation, as the child who has come home from school to his mother no longer cares to look at the once sacred photograph, so the seers and prophets of all ages, having the revelation of God in their own hearts, have paid scant attention to the translators of that revelation in the experiences of others; living with God face to face, they have cared little for the pictures which other men have taken of him. Such is the skepticism of the mystic. It is distrust of second-hand reports because to the mystic such reports seem wholly inadequate to interpret his own experience. It is skepticism born of a faith sometimes too audacious to be a safe guide to others, sometimes too egotistic to be a wholly safe guide to him who possesses it; but not for a moment to be classed in the same category with those skepticisms which deny

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or are indifferent to the reality of spiritual fellowship with the invisible God.

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The Spectator.

The Spectator has yielded to one of the charms of modern life—the trolley-car. No lifting of eyebrows, not even a chorus of voices raised in violent protestations, because of the word "charm" in connection with trolley-cars, will move the Spectator to retract his avowal. The trolley-car is the modern substitute for the old stage-coach, adjusted perfectly to the spirit of to-day. Witness the stage-coaching of to-day. Its aim is to make record speed between two given points; three minutes for the changing of horses results in the kaleidoscopic effects that cause mental confusion. One loses all thought of the scenery in trying to decide whether his mind is giving way, or whether he is color-blind. A moment ago the leaders were white, now they are bay; why, no, they are a cross. So the day speeds on! The nervous anxiety of the coachman to make time ends in the passenger sitting with his watch in his hand, on the edge of the seat, that he may assist by this effort to put more of the road behind him. To "get there" is the purpose of the coaching trip of to-day. One arrives and wonders why he came in the sun on the top of a coach, when he might have come so much more comfortably in the parlor car of the limited.

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Not so the trolley-car. It is the passengers who change and not the means of locomotion, making the hours cumulative of human interest to the Spectator. Now it is the wife of a workingman who boards the car with her family of varying ages, from the infant in arms to the young daughter carrying herself with dignity born of the consciousness that it is the wages she has added to the family exchequer that makes this family excursion possible. Now it is the woman who keeps her interest in life alive by buying to-day what she will exchange to-morrow. Her bundle is carefully carried. Now it is a lover with his lass, and one's youth returns. Was there ever a time when the Spectator forgot there was a world large enough for more than two?

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The man of power blind to a world beyond his own interests crowds into the seat unconscious of his own discomfort, for his affairs have crowded him until he asks nothing for himself but success. To him the important thing is to get there; the pleasure of the journey is lost in the end to be attained. Then there is my lady who hates the common people, and believes that she reveals her social altitude in expressing her hates in the public conveyance she might have avoided. Oh, yes! the vulgar and the commonplace intermingle with the distinguished, but they add to the interest by the contrast they bring into the life of the moment.

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It is evident that it is not the jumping, jolting, bumping, thumping trolley-car of the city streets that the Spectator has in mind when he applies the word charm to a trolley-car. It is the swinging, swaying car running with musical hum and pleasant rumble through woods and meadows, over streams, amid tumbling stone fences and tangles of bushes, with wild-flower gardens sloping down to the edge of sluggish streams in which the cows stand in drowsy content. It is the trolley that with delicate swiftness rounds the curve between the wood-pile and the summer kitchen. It is the trolley-car that is the authorized spirit of democracy, treating with equal familiarity in its approach the stately mansion of wealth and the weather-beaten cottage of poverty. The city trolley is a cruel necessity that the Spectator admits but loves not.

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We rush through the woods, with the gleam of water beyond, to come suddenly on a settlement of Italian laborers. Could anything be worse in the way of human habitation? The interior of the low, paper-covered houses is lost in black. The imagination may picture what that darkness hides. It seems evil until the groups of laborers are seen, dirt-begrimed and sweating, earn-

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ing their bread digging patiently by the roadbed over which we are passing so smoothly. They eye the flying car with the listless gaze of cattle, and bend patiently to work again, no evidence of protest or sense of wrong or envy in face or attitude. Is it this life of isolation, robbed of all that makes a home, that makes their hours of freedom so riotous, often so dangerous?

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But we have left them far behind, and are now passing a "park" with a high-sounding title. The houses suggest a gigantic sawmill which cut them all out at the same moment, from a pattern designed to meet the necessities of the remnant counter of short lengths. Yet there is sunshine on all sides, and air, and trees in fact or in promise, and above all the sense of stability and ownership, for there are individual touches on every house. The people here are not given to pretentiousness, nor do the children grow up in the garish, tawdry finish of the cheap city apartment. The baby tumbles on the piazza behind the home-made gate at the top of the steps. The young mother is just inside the open door fashioning some adornment for him. Next door, within call, sits an old man who has contributed his share to the world's wealth, and sits now under his own roof-tree, if not his vine. That has not grown to the height of his waist, but for that reason it is the more interesting. If it covered him, there would be only fulfillment; now there is promise. His wife still keeps up the round of daily care. She comes to the side door brisk and alert in starched apron, her spectacles pushed back to her smooth gray hair, while she watches the idlers rushing by.

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Now we are passing through the old village. Here is the long, shingle-covered house, its shutters closed in protest against the intrusive present. Lattices surround it to protect the coming and going of the daily life at the back of the house. Through the lace-shaded window are caught the outlines of heads golden and gray. A two-seated carriage drawn by a gray horse is making its way to the back of the house, over a newly cut drive. The one to the front is grass-grown; the trolley has driven the owners to their back door. One almost feels the scorn of the dwellers in the old house for all who use a trolley.

❀

Now we come to the summer hotel with its countless rockers, occupied by the stout and the lean, the grave and the gay, the serious and the flippant; the tennis-court with its agile figures; the red flags of the golf field stretching out over the meadow toward the carefully built bunker, painfully new and green. The place is alive with white duck skirts, trim shirt-waists, with here and there a nonchalant figure in white trousers and cap with gay-colored shirt. A dog-cart turns the corner and swings up the drive, with the sun gilding two heads very close together even in the presence of the watching scores. Another lover and his lass! A cloud settles over the face of the lover sitting in front of the Spectator. The girl with him is a thousand times prettier than the girl in the dog-cart, and would adorn it with far more grace. The lover moves restlessly. It is all wrong, this world which shows so little discrimination in the way it distributes its gifts. The horses, the cart, the beautiful fluffy clothes, the big hotel, have all been given to the wrong girl. The right one sits here in the trolley. The Spectator reads it all in the young man's face full of fire and energy. What of the lass? She has not noticed the cart or its occupants. Her eyes are fastened on a tiny four-roomed cottage down the road on the other side. Its possibilities are great. See the hammock at the corner with a girl swinging idly, and a man in a chair smoking a pipe. The soft hazel eyes glow at what she sees, for her imagination puts it within range of the possible. The lover follows her gaze and becomes a mind-reader. There is a quick exchange of glances. The demon of discontent and envy is exorcised, and love reigns down at the cottage, in the dog-cart behind the prancing horse, and in the trolley-car where a lover and his lass have brought back thoughts of the Spectator's youth.

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The Situation in the Philippines

By Luke E. Wright

Governor General of the Philippine Islands

The Outlook referred last week to the harmony of views as to the American policy in the Philippines between the Administration, Judge Taft, who is to become Secretary of War, and General Wright, who will succeed Governor Taft. The opinions and attitude of the new Governor-General of the Philippines are naturally a matter of public interest. They are set forth clearly and fully in the address published below. This address was delivered at a banquet given in honor of General Wright at Memphis in November of last year. We omit the introductory paragraphs referring to the reception given to the guest of the occasion by his fellow-townsmen and to the presence of President Roosevelt. The address is published with the consent of General Wright and from a revised copy furnished by him.—THE EDITORS.

THE United States, under the Treaty of Paris, added these islands to its territory and thereby became responsible for their future. The question as to whether this step was wise or otherwise, in the light of accomplished events, must be purely an academic question. The only practical question presenting itself after the ratification of the treaty was as to the policies which should be pursued in establishing and conducting a government. This question was the more difficult, both because we had no experience in the government of Oriental peoples, and because of the hostility of a large part of the inhabitants of the islands. In looking around for precedents to guide us, the course of the English during a period of several centuries in dealing with Orientals of kindred races, at first blush, seemed to furnish the safest guide. In a certain sense the English had been eminently successful. They had maintained peace and order, protected life and property, and in many ways added to the happiness and welfare of the governed. The English, however, invariably assumed it as axiomatic that these people were not and never could become capable of self-government, or even of taking a considerable share in their own affairs, and that, therefore, a permanent policy of paternalism was essential. Their administration was purely English, natives being employed only in the most subordinate positions, and no attempt being made to develop and build up in the native, by practical experience, a capacity to govern.

President McKinley and his Cabinet could very well have contented themselves with following a precedent so eminently respectable. The idea, however, of establishing a government upon the basic principles adopted by the English in their crown colonies was repugnant to American traditions and ideas. Realizing that the people of the United States were unwilling to embark upon a foreign colonial policy after this or other similar models, the bold experiment was determined upon of inaugurating a scheme of government which assumed that, however inexperienced and unfit the Filipino people then were to govern themselves, they could, by education and proper guidance, in time probably become fit. The grafting of American methods upon a Malay stock, upon which had been imposed a veneering of Spanish civilization, was, to say the least of it, an original conception, success being rendered the more problematical by the fact that the islands were at that time in a blaze of insurrection against American authority. It was determined, however, to make the experiment, and to give them from the beginning such a share in the government as they were capable of undertaking, that share to be increased from time to time as might be warranted by experience.

The President appointed a Civil Commission for the purpose of establishing civil government in the islands

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as soon as armed opposition to the American Government should be at an end. The instructions which he gave that Commission, and which, as I understand, were actually drafted by Secretary Root, embodied the general principles by which they were to be governed. Whatever opinions there may have been among our fellow-citizens as to the desirability of our Government having become responsible for affairs in the Philippines, I feel sure that there can be none as to the humane and generous spirit in which these instructions were written. So far as could be done by precept and injunction, Mr. McKinley sought to establish government in the Philippines primarily for the benefit of the Filipino people themselves. These instructions were an appeal to their intelligence and confidence. No Filipino could read this message of good will without a sentiment of thankfulness for the future it promised. No American could read it without an increased admiration and affection for the President and his great War Secretary, and a firm purpose to deal justly with this long-suffering and unfortunate people, so suddenly placed in our hands by a strange providence. This document will take rank as a classic among state papers, and is worthy of comparison with the best productions of American statesmanship. To the Commission it was not only chart and compass, but an inspiration impelling their best efforts.

It hardly becomes me to speak concerning the quality of the work done by the Commission. That must be judged upon its merits, and its value tested by the event. I may say, however, that the members of that body approached their labors fully imbued with the spirit of the instructions they had received. The task of bringing to the knowledge of the people the benevolent purposes of our Government, not the least important of the work falling to their hands, was begun immediately upon their arrival in the islands. The legislation made necessary in order to establish civil government necessarily covered a wide field, including almost every subject involved in government as we understand it, and many others growing out of conditions peculiar to the people. Upon Judge William H. Taft, from the first the President of the Commission, and afterward Civil Governor, fell perhaps more largely than upon the other members the burden of the work. His labors were herculean, and I may say that those of his associates were not light. Under the stress of overwork the Governor was forced, even with his splendid vitality, temporarily to return to the United States. Although his health was in a critical condition, he still continued his labors before committees of Congress, in bringing to their attention the needs of the Filipino people and the conditions which there prevailed. Judge Ide, another member of the Commission, also succumbed, and was forced to go to Japan to recuperate, but during his absence prepared the drafts of important measures relating to the land laws of the islands. The other members of the Commission have been more fortunate. While, as will be seen from the foregoing, our task has been onerous, I have thoroughly enjoyed every moment of my stay in the Philippines. There was something in the task cut out for us so large and interesting as to arouse every energy and to furnish continual entertainment. From the beginning we were encouraged by finding that a large proportion of the thoughtful and intelligent Filipinos, with whom we came in contact, were prepared to give us their confidence, and hailed with delight the message which we brought. As they were made to understand the purposes and object of our Government in dealing with them, they readily fell into line, and gave us hearty co-operation. They organized the Federal party, whose principal object was to bring an end to the insurrection and secure loyal submission to American authority.

It would be manifestly unfair for me to ascribe the general pacification which followed entirely to the work of the Civil Government or to its Filipino allies. Undoubtedly the moral forces put in motion by the Commission played an important part, but it required the army and navy of the United States to put down insurrection in the field.

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Indeed, this was a prerequisite to the accomplishment of anything of a substantial character by the Commission. That our soldiers and sailors did their duty, oftentimes under circumstances of great embarrassment and difficulty, is a matter of history. They are entitled to, and I am sure will receive, the plaudits of their countrymen. In this connection I cannot refrain from saying that much of the criticism indulged in as to their operations in the Philippines is unwarranted, as I am enabled by personal observation to bear witness. I would not pretend to say that there were not isolated instances of wrong and outrage perpetrated upon the inhabitants, but I do mean to say that such instances were the exception and not the rule. It is to be remembered that there were at one time about seven hundred small detachments of our forces scattered around the islands, engaged in meeting a guerrilla foe who did not carry on operations according to the laws of civilized warfare, but from day to day donned or doffed the insurgent uniform, as exigencies required, and oftentimes perpetrated revolting cruelties upon friendly Filipinos and American soldiers. The difficulty of maintaining, at all times, rigid discipline under such circumstances can be fully understood only by an eye-witness. As a whole, it may be truthfully said that war in the Philippines has been conducted in a civilized and humane way.

Major-General Adna R. Chaffee, who was responsible for the policy pursued in those provinces, and Brigadier-General James F. Bell, who executed that policy, are both well known to me socially and officially, and I have for them both esteem and admiration as soldiers and as men. General Chaffee has a reputation for courage, ability, and humanity extending beyond the boundaries of this Nation. General Bell has not only a most creditable record for gallantry and efficiency, but is in reality one of the most kindly and humane natures I have ever had the good fortune to meet. He has many devoted friends and admirers among the Filipino people themselves. There were perhaps three thousand rifles in the hands of the insurgents in the two provinces named. One day they were in the field with arms in their hands, and the next, having buried their guns, were in the towns circulating with our own soldiers as peaceful, inoffensive noncombatants. They drew their supplies from the people in the towns, who either sympathized with them or feared not to honor their requisitions. It was wholly impossible to conduct war against them effectively, as against an organized and uniformed enemy under the usual conditions which obtain in war. The programme carried out by General Bell was not conceived or executed in a spirit of vengeance. It did not involve the starving or killing of any peaceful or innocent inhabitants. but its purpose was to make it impossible for them to furnish supplies to the insurgents, and thereby force the latter to come in and surrender their guns. This policy was pursued with eminent success, and at a very small loss of life. The actual mortality among both insurgents and people within the reconcentrado districts, as I have every reason to believe, did not exceed seven hundred and fifty souls in the aggregate. The ranks of the insurgents in Batangas were filled with the die-in-the-last-ditch contingent, and when the mountainous character of the country is considered, together with the methods of warfare pursued, it is safe to say that, but for some such policy, years would have elapsed before peace prevailed in the Philippines. It was perfectly apparent to every Filipino that the possibility of successful resistance to American authority had long since ended. This small knot of insurgents in Batangas was delaying the complete pacification of the islands, preventing the establishment of civil government, and thereby inflicting irreparable injury upon the Filipinos themselves. It has always seemed to me that it would have been a false humanity to have hesitated to pursue the course adopted.

There is another subject about which I desire to say just a word, and that is as to the alleged friction which arose at one time between the military and civil authorities. This, again, was greatly exaggerated, and, speaking broadly, had no real existence. It must be remem-

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bered that when the Commission first appeared upon the scene in the Philippines Major-General MacArthur was not only commanding the military force in the field, but was also Military Governor. The policy of the President, as set forth in his instructions, to which I have already referred, was, as fast as possible, to substitute civil for military authority.

On July 4, 1901, Judge Taft was created Civil Governor, relieving General MacArthur from that portion of his functions which related to civil government. The Commission, from the beginning, had shaped its legislation with a view to this change as soon as it was feasible. There was what may be termed a period of transition from military to civil government beginning several months before the date named, and ending a few months thereafter. During this period both the military and civil authorities were operating in the same general sphere. It not infrequently happened that there were clashes between the subordinate military and civil officials upon questions of jurisdiction, and occasionally differences arose between the Major-General commanding and the Civil Governor. These were mainly, however, merely matters of detail, and to their adjustment both the military and the civil authorities addressed themselves, fully appreciating that in the aggregate they were the representatives of the American people in the islands, and that any serious conflict between the two arms of the Government would not only result in lamentable confusion, but in the lowering of American prestige as well. As a consequence, the transfer was made without any real conflict or serious difficulty. The military authorities, after they had been thus superseded in what might be termed their civil functions, invariably assisted the Civil Government, when called on, in the matter of detailing military officers to civil duties, in supplying stores from military depots, in aiding in the suppression of epidemics, and otherwise.

You are doubtless familiar, at least in a general way, with the plan adopted for the government of the Philippine Islands at the last session of Congress. That plan has been, in the main, based upon recommendations made by Governor Taft and the Commission, with such modifications as to Congress seemed best. It provides for a Civil Governor to be appointed by the President; a bicameral Legislature, one branch of which is to be elected by the Filipino people, the effect of which is to still further increase the share of the Filipinos in their own government. Upon examination of the act it will be seen that this participation is real and not nominal. To any one acquainted with the real situation in the archipelago, I think it is evident that the Congress in thus legislating has gone fully as far as the best interests of the people themselves warrant. Indeed, some critics, both hostile and friendly, have asserted that both the Congress and the Commission have gone too fast and too far. Of course this is only a matter of opinion. My own opinion is that, if error has been committed at all, it is in the right direction. It would, however, have been sheer folly, and detrimental to the Filipino people themselves, to have withdrawn American supervision and guidance and turned over the islands to their sole administration. This conclusion has been reached not alone from our own observation and study, but also from the opinions of the most distinguished, patriotic, and intelligent Filipinos.

In reaching this conclusion it has not been overlooked that no people could be taught to govern themselves without practical experience in government. It has been felt with equal conviction that a people absolutely without practical knowledge, whose only conceptions of government have been derived from an observation of Spanish administration, which is, to say the least of it, mediæval in character, and which the Filipinos thought oppressive, could not at once make application of the theories of our Government which were absolutely new and strange to them. It has been suggested that the Filipinos could never learn to govern themselves unless from the beginning they were given the opportunity to do so, just as a man cannot be taught to swim without going into the water. Unquestionably mere theory

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cannot supply the place of actual practice, but it appears to me that he would be regarded as a very poor adviser who would counsel a man ignorant of the art of swimming to at once plunge into a stream beyond his depth.

The Filipinos, except in the most limited and indeed nominal way, have never had any participation in their own government. Such education as they have had, from our own standpoint at least, is mal-education. Of necessity, therefore, we cannot give them a system of government and a body of laws with which they are wholly unfamiliar, then leave them to their own devices and expect satisfactory results.

In saying this I do not wish to be misunderstood. The Filipinos are in no way lacking in natural ability, and possess many attractive qualities. They are courteous and hospitable to a degree; they are lovers of music and have considerable artistic talent. My own impressions of them are most agreeable, and my intercourse with them has inspired a genuine regard. I believe they are capable of great improvement, and in time may be brought to as high a degree of advancement as any tropical people. One must understand, however, in order truly to appreciate the situation, that they are not a homogeneous people; that they are composed of many tribes speaking different languages and in many respects having different customs. The educated class, as compared to the total population, is very small, the great mass being totally ignorant and easily influenced by the designing.

It must be the work of many years to fit them for the full duties of self-government.

There could be no greater misfortune for the Filipino people than that the government established for them by Congress should be administered in a partisan way or affected by partisan politics. The administrative government in the Philippines should in no sense be partisan. Results creditable to the American people can be obtained only by making the administration national in character and based upon purely business principles. Both President McKinley and President Roosevelt, in appointments they have made upon the Commission, have evidently taken this view of the matter, and the Governor and the Commission have acted upon the theory that the welfare of both the American and the Filipino people could be truly subserved only by leaving out of view all political considerations.

It is believed that to inaugurate the practice of making appointments for political service or from personal favoritism would result in bringing the Administration into confusion and utter discredit. The opposite course has been pursued without variableness or shadow of turning. In order to avoid any possibility of improper influences, the Commission has never debated, or even considered, politics in making appointments to office. A comprehensive civil service law, covering all the departments except the Judiciary and Educational, has been enacted, and is being rigidly enforced. There are some offices in the government thus established which must necessarily be filled by Americans, but the great bulk of them are open to Americans and Filipinos alike, and the latter are filling important positions of trust in all of the departments, and are, I am pleased to say, as a general rule, justifying the confidence reposed in them. The civil service law is being extended, and, it is believed, will be finally made to cover all of the departments except perhaps the Judiciary. In this connection I ought to say that neither President McKinley nor President Roosevelt has ever, directly or indirectly, attempted to dictate the selection of civil servants in the insular government, but they have left that duty to the Civil Governor and the Commission. When it is remembered how great is the pressure upon the Administration for appointments to important and lucrative offices, this statement speaks volumes. I verily believe that the policy pursued in the creation and maintenance of the civil service system as above outlined has made a strong impression upon the Filipino people, and has had great weight in convincing them of the rectitude of our intentions with reference to them. Up to this time the legislation of the Congress and the Commission has been mainly directed toward

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establishing the government and putting into operation its machinery. There are large questions of general policy, looking to the social, moral, and material development and improvement of the islands, yet to be made the subject of legislation. Prominent among them is the settlement of the trade relations which shall exist between the United States and the islands. If intimate commercial intercourse is to be established, necessarily tariff barriers must be lowered or torn down. The great bulk of the business of the islands has heretofore been, and still is, transacted with Europe, and the business and commerce of the islands are now, to a great extent, in the hands of foreigners. The islands are naturally of exceeding richness, and produce in abundance sugar, hemp, copra, and tobacco, and are also rich in their mineral resources. The principal wealth of the islands is in their agricultural products. The people have, as yet, engaged but little in manufacture, and the methods employed both in manufacture and in agriculture are primitive in the extreme. The losses growing out of the war, cattle plague, and cholera epidemics have worn heavily upon them. American methods and enterprise, backed by American capital, would, if properly directed, be of incalculable benefit to the Filipino people, and it is believed would yield satisfactory returns.

The Work of a Woman Tenement-House Inspector

By Mary B. Sayles

NEW YORK CITY already employs ten women inspectors, while an eligible list of sixty women candidates who have passed their civil service examinations for the position bears evidence to the interest which the work is arousing in the chief city of the land. In Yonkers a woman inspector has been at work for several years, and her work has triumphantly stood the test of the severest investigation. Orange, New Jersey, has for nearly two years been benefited by the services of a woman inspector employed by a sanitary association; and a Philadelphia association has recently secured the services of an excellently equipped woman who, it is expected, will be the means of bringing about great improvements in the tenement districts. In a number of other cities well-organized citizens' movements are under way which will doubtless result not only in improved codes of tenement-house laws, but in increased and more highly specialized inspection; and in the special investigations upon whose results these reform movements are based women have borne an important part. These examples serve to indicate the growing importance which is coming to be attached to the work of sanitary inspection, and to women's part in that work.

There are two types of sanitary inspection, fairly distinct from each other. The one includes a large number of diversified activities—the inspection of the houses themselves and educational work among the people by teaching proper methods of housekeeping, cooking, care of the sick, of children, etc. Its flexibility gives great scope for individual initiative to the worker, who is almost inevitably a woman. The other type is strictly confined to dealing with external conditions, and its educational influence is exerted indirectly, by the reaction of improved housing conditions upon the habits and health of those housed. It is with this latter type of inspection that, as an inspector in the New York Tenement-House Department, I am most familiar; and to it I shall confine my attention in the account which follows. It is not a work in which women have any peculiar part, for they work side by side with men

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without distinction in aim or method; but it is a work which, despite the strict limitations imposed by legal provisions and by the rules and regulations necessary for the government of a large body of employees, yet possesses for the worker a peculiar and powerful interest.

The tenement inspector's work is so varied, so many-sided, that it is difficult to give any idea of it in a set account. A more vivid realization of what is actually done may perhaps be gained from following an inspector through part of her daily round. To this end the first half of a typical day's record is presented —a record made up of representative experiences, though not all are literal accounts of a single actual occurrence.

At five minutes to nine the inspector whom we are to accompany is at her desk in the large inspectors' room. The roll-call over, she hands in her reports for the preceding day, consults the chief inspector on some difficult problem that has arisen, refers a case where important plumbing work has been begun to one of the plumbing inspectors, arranges the work which has been assigned her for the day, and at half-past nine is ready to start for her district—a compactly built up group of some ten blocks on the lower East Side.

First of all, there are four complaints, made by tenants living in this district, which must be investigated; for the complaints of citizens take precedence over all other kinds of work. In no case is the inspector informed who has made the complaint. She merely receives a card bearing the address of the house and a brief summary of the complaint made, with space for a full statement of what she finds on investigation. She is thus able truthfully to assure the irate landlord who demands the name of the complaint-maker that she does not know it; and so, very likely, to save some long-suffering tenant from being turned out in revenge.

Alighting from a cross-town car on the outskirts of her district, the inspector draws from her equipment case the first of her complaints and reads the typewritten summary, as she walks the remaining half-block to the house designated: "Whole house filthy. Horrible smells in cellar make children sick." This is a sweeping accusation, and calls for a full investigation of the house—a five-story brick building, as it turns out, occupied by five families on a floor, with two-foot-wide air-shafts on either side and a shallow paved yard in the rear.

The inspector has only to enter the door to discover the first condition needing attention—hall walls blackened with the dust of years and streaked from contact with many grimy hands. This condition noted, she knocks in turn at each of the four kitchen doors on the first story, and, on being admitted, examines all plumbing in each apartment, finding a few minor defects in the waste-pipes under the sinks. Having thus located the vertical waste lines from all the plumbing fixtures in the house, so that she will know where to look for the pipes in the cellar, she draws her electric torch from her case and cautiously descends the cellar stairs into the blackness below. Instantly she is met by a rush of foul sewer air, and, after searching a few minutes, she discovers the source—a large jagged opening in the top of the house drain at one side of the cellar, from which pours a stream of nauseating gases. A huge heap of rubbish and garbage in one corner also claims her attention. Careful search reveals no other condition of a serious character, and she climbs the stairs and shuts the door behind her, drawing a breath of relief in the somewhat purer air above. Next comes the investigation of the upper halls and of the plumbing in each apartment, the inspection of yard and shafts, and an examination of the roof, which is found to leak so badly that the plastering on one ceiling is bulging and ready to fall. At last, having completed her investigation and secured from the janitress the name and address of the owner, the inspector is ready to pass on to her second complaint.

The summary here reads almost exactly like that in the first case, and would lead one to suppose that an equally serious state of affairs existed, especially as the house is a rear one, where so often the worst conditions are found. What, then, is the surprise of the inspector when her most painstaking

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efforts fail to reveal a handful of rubbish anywhere about the premises, a single defect in plumbing, or any other condition serious enough to call for action by the Department. Previous experiences of a similar sort, however, soon lead her to suspect the explanation; and when she reaches the last apartment on the top floor, her suspicion is confirmed. "Ah!" exclaims a florid, much-befrizzled woman, ushering her in with the air of a grand duchess, "at last you are come! Take a chair—no—I insist! It is *I* who made this complaint, and I *will* be heard! Oh, what I have suffered in this terrible house! The foul emanations from that noisome cellar!" And she proceeds, with dramatic gestures and a marvelous flow of English, to elaborate a tale of horror which might well cause the "knotted and combined locks" of the inexperienced visitor to part and stand on end. The inspector, however, serene in the knowledge that the whole story is a baseless yarn, probably invented out of spite, makes such inoffensive and noncommittal remarks as she can devise, and withdraws as speedily as possible. Diplomacy, however, proves unavailing, and she is followed down the stairs by a volley of words, of which the last that she hears are to the effect that she, like all the other inspectors who have visited the house, "knows no more about her business than a baby," and that one and all shall be reported at once for neglect of duty. The inspector is not surprised when one of the tenants on a lower floor, who has come out into the hall to learn the cause of the disturbance, whispers to her as she passes, "She's crazy mad. Just been turned out—owes three months' rent." Such is the spite complaint, well known to every tenement-house inspector.

The third complaint, unlike the first two, calls, not for a complete sanitary inspection, but for the examination of a single specified point. The summary is brief: "Halls dark." It takes only a few minutes to discover that in the public halls on the second, third, and fourth stories one cannot see to read, as the law requires. It is found that on each floor the two doors at the front end of the hall open into rooms which have windows on the street, while the two doors at the rear open into rooms with windows on the yard. It is therefore easy to determine how the needed light shall be supplied; for the law provides for the substitution of glass for wooden door panels, where this method will be effective.

The fourth complaint takes the inspector to one of the worst houses of an adjoining Italian district, to ascertain whether rags are stored in the cellar; for the law forbids the use of any part of a tenement-house for such a purpose. The Italian landlady, who lives on the premises, assures the inspector that "no-a rag eva keep in cel'," and smiles upon her most affably, entreating her to "come in have-a just one glass—so good wine." When, however, she learns that the inspector is actually going to insist upon seeing the inside of every fuel-bin in the cellar, her mood changes, and it is with a storm of blows and oaths that she drives her numerous offspring upstairs to collect the tenants' keys. Yet, after all, it is three closets used by the landlady herself which the inspector at last finds heaped to the ceiling with a motley collection of filthy rags. Just at the moment when, driven to desperation by the quiet insistence of the inspector, the woman flings open the last door, the landlord himself arrives on the scene. In a moment the swarm of gaping youngsters are driven upstairs, and the owner approaches the inspector with all the suavity of his race. "The lady must pardon. After this week no more rag keep in cel'. All be sent away. The lady please say nothing—I fix it all right"—and something which even the dim light of the cellar plainly shows to be a rolled-up bill is gently and covertly brought into proximity with the inspector's hand. Unlike his wife, the wily fellow does not lose his suavity on being assured of the uselessness of his attempt, but bows the inspector to the door with all the courtesy imaginable. Once outside, she makes a note of the offering of a bribe, with the name and address of the landlord; for all such offers must be promptly reported to the Department.

The investigation of complaints hav-

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ing been completed, the inspector takes up her first reinspection. Orders have been issued in this case to remove the old, torn, dirty paper from the walls of the hall and properly clean them. The inspector has visited the house several times since the orders were issued, and had reported "nothing done" till the last visit, when she found workmen engaged in putting new paper over the old, of which there were already seven layers. As the literal carrying out of this order is one of the points on which the Department most strenuously insists, she had at once ordered the men to stop work, and telephoned to the Department. Since that time pressure has been brought to bear on the owner, and to-day the inspector finds the walls stripped and cleaned, and the work of painting them in progress. The painter remarks, with a grin, that "the landlord says he's had enough of papering." Certainly the tenants have; for there are few better lodging-places and breeding-grounds for disease germs than a filthy papered wall. Many worse cases than the one in question are known to the inspector. In one—the "record-breaker"—a solid sheet of paper had been taken from a wall which, when soaked, proved to be made up of eighteen distinct layers. These had been placed one on top of another, the first probably dating back forty years or more.

The next reinspection takes the inspector into a subcellar, pitch black, and so low that she must stoop as she finds her way about with the aid of her torch. The house drain had been badly broken, and the earth floor about it flooded with foul water and sewage. To-day the inspector finds a new length of pipe inserted in place of the old broken length, and the cellar floor cleaned and disinfected. The cobwebs which she finds festooning her hat when she reaches the upper world again do not destroy her satisfaction in a good piece of work.

The third reinspection relates to the erection of a new fire-escape. The house, a large six-story tenement, had been provided with fire-escapes for only three of the four apartments on each floor, five families thus being left without means of escape in case of fire. Repeated orders had been sent to the owner to erect a new fire-escape accessible to these apartments, and at last, as nothing was done, the case was placed in the hands of the Corporation Counsel, and suit for the collection of damages begun. To-day the inspector has received a request for a reinspection marked, "Report wanted in one day for Corporation Counsel." She therefore is not surprised, in approaching the house, to see a new, properly constructed fire-escape in place. Apparently properly constructed, that is; for so detailed are the requirements of the law in regard to new fire-escapes that a careful examination by a special inspector will be necessary before the owner can be notified that the violation is dismissed. In one case known to the inspector a new fire-escape had to be twice taken down and re-erected before it was satisfactory to the Department.

One more reinspection remains—that of an old three-story house which four weeks ago, when the inspector first visited it, was in very bad repair, with broken cellar stairs, fallen plaster, and exceedingly defective plumbing. The inspector nerves herself as for an ordeal as she approaches the house; for she has already made two reinspections there, on both of which occasions she was followed over the house by an enraged landlord, who muttered at every step mingled anathemas against the Commissioner, the entire reform movement, and her humble self. She is therefore naturally astounded when this same landlord meets her at the door with a face wreathed in smiles. His complaisance is soon explained. "Certainly the lady can inspect as much as she pleases. But—it is not a tenement any more." True enough; for there are now but two families in the house, the rooms originally occupied for living purposes in the rear of the store having been converted to storage uses, and all plumbing removed so that they cannot again be occupied. The landlord's joy is thus explained: for it is the Board of Health which has control of all dwellings not tenements (or three-family houses), and his recollections of the operations of

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the last Tammany board are not such as to inspire him with dread. The only comfort which the inspector has, as she regretfully realizes that the Department must loose its grip on this particular house, is the reflection that it is to a reformed and peculiarly efficient Department of Health that the case will be turned over in the morning.

The complaints and reinspections for the day now being completed, the inspector returns to the point in her regular sanitary inspection where she had stopped work the day before; for all time not spent in special work is devoted to a regular house-to-house investigation of all tenements throughout the district. There are days, indeed, when twenty to thirty complaints and reinspections keep her busy the entire day, so that she can make no progress in the systematic inspection. Yet she has already completed all but two of the blocks assigned to her.

The work on each house in the regular inspection is similar to that done in the first complaint investigation—a complete examination of all plumbing, and of conditions in the public parts of the house from roof to cellar, together with all surrounding spaces. In the first house a number of serious evils are found—deficient water supply on the top floor, for which the only remedy seems to be the supplying of a roof tank; large accumulations of rubbish in cellar and shafts, which an obsequious janitor begins to clean before the inspector leaves the house; and the occupation of certain cellar rooms whose ceiling is just on a level with the curb, instead of being, as the law requires, at least two feet above that level. A special examination will have to be made before these rooms can be ordered vacated, but they are so clearly not in conformity with the provisions of the law that their occupation cannot be permitted to continue.

The next house examined, an old rear tenement, is found in a very serious state of repair. The earthen floor of the cellar is flooded with tide-water, the stairs to the upper floors are so rickety that they shake beneath one's tread, the old iron sink on the second story in the hall is broken and lies on the floor, while the water from a leaking faucet above it has soaked through the floor and caused the plaster to fall from the ceiling below; the walls of the hall and of several of the rooms are inexpressibly foul; and a number of tubs and pails standing in different corners of the upper rooms are half filled with the water which poured through the roof in last night's storm. This is a case for what is known, in departmental phrase, as "twenty-four hours' notice" to the owner; and it is quite possible that if immediate heed is not paid to this notification the house may be vacated till put in proper repair.

The house which stands side by side with this representative of the worst survivals of old New York stands also, to the mind of the tenement-house specialist, at the opposite end of the ladder of progress. It is a new tenement built under the law of 1901, and not yet occupied two months. Its wide, light halls and spacious courts are immaculately clean. Such houses, which at a glance show themselves to be in exceptionally good condition, the inspectors are instructed to pass by in their regular inspection, that time may be concentrated on cases more needing attention.

The cursory examination of this house over, the inspector finds that it is time to think of lunch. Before she can reach the first corner, however, she is arrested by calls of "Inspectress! oh, inspectress!" from two women who have run out after her from a house she has passed. Accustomed as she is to every form of greeting, from "Look at the Salvation Army!" to "Here comes the Board of Health!" she recognizes a more serious purpose in the present call, and waits till the women catch up with her. Their story is quickly told, though in a mingling of broken English and Yiddish not easy to understand. Lights are provided at night in the house where they live on only three, instead of on all five, floors, as the law requires; and these lights are put out at ten o'clock, although the law requires that on two floors they shall be kept burning all night. This is, of course, as the inspector explains to the women, a state of affairs which can be investigated only on a night

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inspection; and such an inspection she promises the women shall be made at once.

At last the inspector reaches the little Hungarian Kávéház es Eterem (coffee-house and restaurant), where she eats a twenty-five-cent dinner, sitting elbow to elbow with workmen from the factories and docks. After a brief rest she will return to work. At four o'clock she leaves her district for home, where long and vigorous application of soap and water at last renders her fit to appear at the dinner-table. Then an hour or two must be spent in writing up the reports of the day's work; after which such part of the evening as remains is her own for rest, recreation, or study. Such is the tenement inspector's day.

What shall we say of the work? The qualities needed for it? The satisfactions which it brings? The opportunities which it offers for usefulness on the one hand and for self-education on the other?

In the first place, as must be perfectly evident to the reader of the foregoing account, a college education is not a necessary part of the equipment of a tenement inspector. Power of quick and accurate observation and concise expression, a certain knowledge of plumbing and practical housing construction, a clear head so well poised as not to be unbalanced by the wail of the chronic complaint-maker or the injured innocence of the wily landlord—these, with tact, sympathy, and a thorough-going spirit of democracy, are the qualities most needed.

Yet it is significant that nearly all the women inspectors are college-bred or have enjoyed equivalent educational opportunities. The explanation is not to be found wholly in the fact that the inspector's salary is larger than that which the average college graduate is likely to secure in other lines of work. It is a characteristic of our time that years of self-improvement, of luxuriating in literature and science and philosophy, quite frequently leave the student with an acute consciousness of quite another set of needs—with a longing to know life at its barest and hardest, to grapple with cold physical facts, to stand on a common footing with those who have had no special advantages or opportunities, to gain a broader and deeper knowledge of the strange, commonplace, mysterious, infinitely varied life about her, which books so dimly reflect. This is the impulse, or one of the impulses, which leads so many of the highly trained women of the present generation into settlement and charitable work. Yet the tenement inspector has at least two distinct advantages over both the settlement worker and the charitable visitor. In the first place, she becomes familiar with those parts of the city which she covers with a thoroughness which hardly any other experience can give, knowing not only the houses but the nationalities, occupations, and habits of their occupants. She is thus free from the danger of getting the one-sided view of life which those who work constantly among the unfortunate, the abnormal, or the vicious find it hard to escape. In the second place, she goes among the working people avowedly as a worker whose duties are known and whose purposes are evident; and is thus not troubled by the sort of subserviency which the charity worker so frequently meets. It is, indeed, quite possible that she may meet the opposite extreme of pity or even condescension. I shall not soon forget the emphatic tones in which one woman whom I found at work over her wash-tubs summed up the situation, from her point of view: "I wouldn't do your work, not if they offered me Ten Dollars a Week!" Nor the comment of another good housewife, who, after asking me numberless questions—whether I *really* climbed out on roofs and went down into dark cellars, etc.—suddenly burst out, "Well, certainly, as Jacob Riis says, we don't know how the other half lives! I never should have dreamed of a female being reduced to do such work!"

There are other perhaps even more tangible benefits of an intellectual sort which the tenement inspector may gain. No reading on the subject of socialism or *laissez faire* can give one quite the sort of knowledge which comes to the worker who day by day watches and assists in the enforcement of a splendid body of law like the tenement-house

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law of 1901. I will venture the opinion that the fiery radical will come from a year of tenement inspection a sobered and more conservative man; and that the timid conservative will gain from such a year new courage to grapple with new problems. For the one must be dull indeed if he has not learned how carefully, how slowly, with what infinite patience and long-continued study, each new advance movement of the social forces must be planned and executed; and the other can hardly have failed to gain something of the hopefulness and high spirit of daring which have sustained the leaders of this particular advance movement in their long struggle. Certainly no one who has had the satisfaction of seeing a district "cleaned up"—of watching while unsightly and health-endangering masses of filth disappear, while old defective plumbing is replaced by new, while foul walls are cleaned and rickety stairs repaired and wet cellars concreted, and helpless tenants given light and air and means of escape from fire—certainly no one who has been privileged to have this experience will ever again heed the cry of the reactionist that the reform movement is "impractical" or "insincere" or ineffective for good.

Animal Surgery

By William J. Long

Author of "Beasts of the Field," "Secrets of the Woods," etc.

MOST people have seen a sick cat eat grass, or an uneasy dog seek out some weed and devour it greedily to make his complaining stomach feel better. Some few may have read John Wesley's directions on the art of keeping well—which have not, however, found their way into his book of discipline for the soul—and have noticed with surprised interest his claim that many medicines in use among the common people and the physicians of his time were discovered by watching the animals that sought out these things to heal their diseases. "If they heal animals, they will also heal men," is his invincible argument. Others may have dipped deep into Indian history and folk-lore, and learned that many of the herbs used by the American tribes, and especially the cures for rheumatism, dysentery, fever, and snake-bites, were learned direct from the animals, by noting the rheumatic old bear grub for fern roots or bathe in the hot mud of a sulphur spring, and by watching with eager eyes what plants the wild creatures ate when bitten by rattlers or wasted by the fever. Still others have been fascinated with the first crude medical knowledge of the Greeks, which came to them from the East undoubtedly, and have read that the guarded mysteries of the Asclepiads, the healing cult that followed Æsculapius, had among them many simple remedies that had first proved their efficacy among animals in a natural state; and that Hippocrates, the greatest physician of antiquity, whose fame under the name of Bokrat the Wise went down through Arabia and into the farthest deserts, owes many of his medical aphorisms to what he himself, or his forebears, must have seen out-of-doors among the wild creatures. And all these seers and readers have perhaps wondered how much the animals knew, and especially how they came to know it.

To illustrate the matter simply and in our own day and generation: A deer that has been chased all day long by dogs, and that has escaped at last by swimming an icy river and fallen exhausted on the farther shore, will lie down to sleep in the snow. That would mean swift death for any human being. Half the night the deer will move about at short intervals, instead of sleeping heavily, and in the morning he is as good as ever and ready for another run. The same deer shut up in a warm barn to sleep over night, as has been more than once tested with park animals, will be found dead in the morning.

Here is a natural law of healing sug-

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gested which, if noted among the Greeks or Indians, would have been adopted instantly as a method of dealing with extreme cold and exhaustion, or with poisoning resulting in paralysis of the muscles. Certainly the method, if somewhat crude, might still have wrought enough cures to be looked upon with veneration by a people who, unfortunately, had no knowledge of chemical drugs, or Scotch whisky, or sugar pellets with an ethereal suggestion of intangible triturations somewhere in the midst of them.

That the animals do practice at times a rude kind of medicine and surgery upon themselves is undeniable. The only question about it is, How do they know? To say it is a matter of instinct is but begging the question. It is also three-fourths foolishness; for many of the things that animals do are beyond the farthest scope of instinct. The case of the deer that moved about and so saved his life, instead of sleeping on heavily to his death, may be partly a case of instinct. Personally it seems to me more a matter of experience; for a fawn under the same circumstances, unless his mother were near to keep him moving, would undoubtedly lie down and die. More than that, it seems to be largely a matter of obedience to the strongest impulse of the moment, to which all animals are accustomed or trained from their birthday. And that is not quite the same thing as instinct, unless one is disposed to go to the extreme of Berkeley's philosophy and make instinct a kind of spirit-personality that watches over animals all the time. Often the knowledge of healing or of primitive surgery seems to be the discovery or possession of a few rare individual animals instead of being spread widecast among the species, as instincts are. This knowledge, or what-you-may-call-it, is sometimes shared, and so hints at a kind of communication among animals, of whose method we catch only fleeting glimpses and suggestions—but that will be the subject of another article. The object of this is not to answer the questions of how or whence, but simply to suggest one or two things that I have seen in the woods as the basis for further and more detailed observations.

The most elemental kind of surgery is that which amputates a leg when it is broken—not always or often, but only when the wound festers from decay or fly-bite and so endangers the whole body. Probably the best illustration of this is found in the coon, who has a score of traits that place him very high among intelligent animals. When a coon's foot is shattered by a bullet, he will cut it off promptly and wash the stump in running water, partly to reduce the inflammation and partly, no doubt, to make it perfectly clean. As it heals he uses his tongue on the wound freely, as a dog does, to cleanse it perhaps, and by the soft massage of his tongue to reduce the swelling and allay the pain.

So far this may or may not be pure instinct. For I do not know, and who will tell me, whether a child puts his wounded hand to his mouth and sucks it by pure instinct, or because he has seen others do it, or has had his hurts kissed away in childhood, and so imitates the action unconsciously when his mother is not near? Most mother animals tongue their little ones freely. Now, is that a caress, or is it some hygienic measure begun at birth, when she devours all traces of the birth-envelopes and licks the little ones clean, lest the nose of some hungry prowler bring him near to destroy the family? Certainly the young are conscious of the soft tongue that rubs them fondly, and so when they lick their own wounds it may be only a memory and an imitation—two factors, by the way, which lie at the bottom of all elemental education.

That explanation, of course, leaves the amputated leg out of the question; and the surgery does not stop here.

When a boy, and still barbarian enough to delight in trapping, partly from a love of the chase that was born in me and partly to put money into a boy's empty pocket, I once caught a muskrat in a steel trap that slid off into deep water at the first pull and so drowned the creature mercifully. This was due to the careful instructions of Natty Dingle, at whose feet I sat to learn woodcraft, and who used the

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method to save all his pelts. For often an animal, when caught in a trap, will snap the bone by a twist of his body and then cut the leg off with his teeth, and so escape leaving his foot in the trap's jaws. This is common enough among fur-bearing animals to excite no comment; and it is sad now to remember that sometimes I would find animals drowned in my traps that had previously suffered at the hands of other trappers.

I remember especially one big musquash that I was going to shoot near one of my traps when I stopped short at noticing some queer thing about him. The trap was set in shallow water where a path made by muskrats came up out of the river into the grass. Just over the trap was a turnip on a pointed stick to draw the creature's attention and give him something to anticipate until he should put his foot on the deadly pan beneath. But the old musquash avoided the path, as if he had suffered in such places before. Instead, he came out at another spot behind the trap, and I saw with horrible regret that he had cut off both his fore legs, probably at different times, when he had been twice caught in man's abominable inventions. When he came up out of the stream he rose on his hind legs and waddled through the grass like a bear or a monkey, for he had no forefeet to rest upon. He climbed a tussock beside the bait with immense caution, pulled in the turnip with his two poor stumps of forearms, ate it where he was, and slipped back into the stream again; while the boy watched with a new wonder in the twilight, and forgot all about the gun he had brought with him to shoot muskrats as he tended his traps.

It does not belong with my story, but that night the traps came in, and never went out again; and I can never pass a trap now anywhere without poking a stick into it to save some poor innocent leg.

All this is digression; and I have almost forgotten my surgery and the particular muskrat I was talking about. He, too, had been caught in some other fellow's trap and had bitten his leg off only a few days before. The wound was not yet healed, and the amazing thing about it was that he had covered it with some kind of sticky vegetable gum, probably from some pine-tree that had been split or barked close to the ground where Musquash could reach it easily. He had smeared it thickly all over the wound and well up the leg above it, so that all dirt and even all air and water were excluded perfectly.

An old Indian who lives and hunts on Vancouver Island told me recently that he has several times caught beaver that had previously cut their legs off to escape from traps, and that two of them had covered the wounds thickly with gum, as the muskrat had done. Last spring the same Indian caught a bear in a deadfall. On the animal's side was a long rip from some other bear's claw, and the wound had been smeared thickly with soft spruce resin. This last experience corresponds closely with one of my own. I shot a big bear years ago in northern New Brunswick that had received a gunshot wound, which had raked him badly and then penetrated the leg. He had plugged the wound carefully with clay, evidently to stop the bleeding, and then had covered the broken skin with sticky mud from the river's brink, to keep the flies away from the wound and give it a chance to heal undisturbed. It is noteworthy here that the bear uses either gum or clay indifferently, while the beaver and muskrat seem to know enough to avoid the clay, which would be quickly washed off in the water.

Here are a few incidents, out of a score or more that I have seen or heard from reliable hunters, that indicate something more than native instinct among animals. When I turn to the birds, the incidents are fewer but more remarkable; for the birds, being lower in the scale of life, are more subject to instinct than are the animals, and so are less easily taught by their mothers, and are slower to change their natural habits to meet changing conditions.

This is, of course, a very general statement, and is subject to endless exceptions. The finches that, when transported to Australia from England, changed the style of their nests radically, and now build in a fashion entirely

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different from that of their parents; the little goldfinch of New England that will build a false bottom to her nest to cover up the egg of a cowbird that has been left to hatch among her own; the grouse that near the dwellings of men are so much wilder and keener than their brethren of the wilderness; the swallows that adopt the chimneys and barns of civilization instead of the hollow trees and clay banks of their native woods—all these and a score of others show how readily instinct is modified among the birds, and how the young are taught a wisdom that their forefathers never knew. Nevertheless, it is true, I think, that instincts are generally sharper with them than with animals, and the following cases suggest all the more strongly that we must look beyond instinct to training and individual discovery to account for many things among the feathered folk.

One day in the early spring I saw two eider-ducks swimming about the Hummock Pond on the island of Nantucket. The keen-eyed critic will interfere here and say I was mistaken; for eiders are salt-water ducks that love the open sea and are supposed never to enter fresh water, not even to breed. That is what I also supposed until I saw these two; so I sat down to watch a while and find out, if possible, what had caused them to change their habits. At this time of year the birds are almost invariably found in pairs, and sometimes a flock a hundred yards long will pass you, flying close to the water and sweeping around the point where you are watching, first a pretty brown female and then a gorgeous black and white drake just behind her, alternating with perfect regularity, female and male, throughout the whole length of the long line. The two birds before me, however, were both females, and that was another reason for watching them instead of the hundreds of other ducks, coots and sheldrakes and broadbills, that were scattered all over the big pond.

The first thing noticed was that the birds were acting queerly, dipping their heads under water and keeping them there for a full minute or more at a time. That was curious, too, for the water under them was too deep for feeding, and the eiders prefer to wait till the tide falls and then gather the exposed shellfish from the rocks rather than to dive after them, like a coot. Darkness came on speedily to hide the birds, who were still dipping their heads as if bewitched, and I went away no wiser for my watching.

A few weeks later there was another eider, a big drake, in the same pond, and acting in the same queer way. Thinking perhaps that this was a wounded bird that had gone crazy from a shot in the head, I pushed out after him in an old tub of a boat; but he took wing at my approach, like any other duck, and after a vigorous flight lit farther down the pond and plunged his head under water again. Thoroughly curious now, I went on a still hunt after the stranger, and after much difficulty succeeded in shooting him from the end of a bushy point. The only unusual thing about him was that a large mussel, such as grow on the rocks in salt water, had closed his shells firmly on the bird's tongue in such a way that he could neither be crushed by the bird's bill nor scratched off by the bird's foot. I pulled the mussel off, put it in my pocket, and went home more mystified than before.

That night I hunted up an old fisherman, who had a big store of information in his head about all kinds of wild things, and asked him if he had ever seen a shoal duck in fresh water. "Once or twice," he said. "They kept dipping their heads under water, kinder crazy like." But he had no explanation to offer until I showed him the mussel that I had found on the duck's tongue. Then his face lightened. "Mussels of that kind won't live in fresh water," he declared, at a glance; and then the explanation of the birds' queer actions flashed into both heads at once; they were simply drowning the mussels in order to make them loosen their grip on the birds' tongues.

This is undoubtedly the true explanation, as I made sure by testing the mussels in fresh water, and by watching the birds more closely at their feeding. All winter they may be found along our

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coasts, where they feed on the small shellfish that cover the ledges. As the tide goes down they swim in from the shoals, where they rest in scattered flocks, and chip the mussels from the ledges, swallowing them shells and all. A score of times I have hidden among the rocks of the jetty with a few wooden decoys in front of me and watched the eiders come in to feed. They would approach the decoys rapidly, lifting their wings repeatedly as a kind of salutation; then, angered apparently that they were not welcomed by the same signal of uplifted wings, they would swim up to the wooden frauds and peck them savagely here and there, and then leave them in disgust and scatter among the rocks at my feet, paying little attention to me as long as I kept perfectly still. For they are much tamer than other wild ducks, and are, unfortunately, slow to believe that man is their enemy.

I noticed another curious thing while watching them, and hoping that by some chance I might see one caught by a mussel. When a flock was passing high overhead, any sudden noise—a shout or the near report of a gun—would make the whole flock swoop down like a flash close to the water. Plover have the same habit when they first arrive from Labrador; but I have hunted in vain for any satisfactory explanation of the thing.

As the birds feed, a mussel will sometimes close his shells hard on some careless duck's tongue or bill in such a way that he cannot be crushed or swallowed or broken against the rocks. In that case the bird, if he knows the secret, will fly to fresh water and drown his tormentor. Whether all the ducks have this wisdom, or whether it is confined to a few rare birds, there is no present means of knowing. I have seen three different eiders practice this bit of surgery myself, and have heard of at least a dozen more, all of the same species, that were seen in fresh ponds or rivers dipping their heads under water repeatedly. In either case two interesting questions suggest themselves. First, how did a bird, whose whole life from birth to death is spent on the sea, first learn that certain mussels will drown in fresh water? and, second, how do the other birds know it now when the need arises unexpectedly?

There is one other bit of bird surgery, more wonderful still, that opens up a wider field for speculation. Twenty years ago, while sitting quietly by a brook at the edge of the woods in Bridgewater, Massachusetts, a woodcock fluttered out into the open, and made his way to a spot on the bank where a light streak of clay showed clearly from where I was watching. It was the early hunting season, when gunners were abroad in the land, and my first impression was that this was a wounded bird that had made a long flight after being shot at, and that had now come out to the stream to drink or to bathe his wound, as birds often do. Whether this were so or not is a matter of guesswork; but the bird was acting strangely in broad daylight, and I crept nearer, till I could see him plainly on the other side of the little stream, though he was still too far away for me to be absolutely sure of what all his motions meant.

At first he took soft clay in his bill from the edge of the water and seemed to be smearing it on one leg near the knee. Then he fluttered away on one foot for a distance and seemed to be pulling tiny roots and fibers of grass, which he worked into the clay that he had already smeared on his leg. Again he took more clay and plastered it over the fibers, putting on more and more till I could plainly see the enlargement; he worked away with strange, silent intentness for fully fifteen minutes, while I watched and wondered, scarce believing my eyes. Then he stood perfectly still for a full hour under an overhanging sod, where the eye could with difficulty find him, his only motion meanwhile being an occasional rubbing and smoothing of the clay bandage with his bill, until it hardened enough to suit him, whereupon he fluttered away from the brook and disappeared in the thick woods.

I had my own explanation of the incredible action—namely, that the woodcock had a broken leg, and had deliberately put it into a clay cast to hold the broken bones in place until they should knit together again; but, naturally, I

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kept my own counsel, knowing that no one would believe in the theory. For years I questioned gunners closely, and found two who said that they had killed woodcock whose legs had at one time been broken and had healed again. As far as they could remember, the leg had in each case healed perfectly straight instead of twisting to one side, as a chicken's leg does when broken and allowed to knit of itself. I examined hundreds of woodcock in the markets in different localities, and found one whose leg had at one time been broken by a shot and then had healed perfectly. There were plain signs of dried mud at the break; but that was also true of the other leg near the foot, which only indicated that the bird had been feeding in soft places.

All this proved nothing to an outsider, and I kept silence as to what I had seen until last winter, twenty years afterwards, when the confirmation came unexpectedly. I had been speaking of animals before the Contemporary Club of Bridgeport when a gentleman, a lawyer well known all over the State, came to me and told me eagerly of a curious find he had made the previous autumn. He was gunning one day with a friend, when they shot a woodcock, which on being brought in by the dog was found to have a lump of hard clay on one of its legs. Curious to know what it meant, he chipped the clay off with his penknife and found a broken bone, which was then almost healed and as straight as ever. A few weeks later the bird, had he lived, would undoubtedly have taken off the cast himself, by first soaking it in water, and there would have been nothing to indicate anything unusual about him.

So I give the observation now, at last, since proof is at hand, not to indicate a new or old habit of woodcock—for how far the strange knowledge is spread among the wading birds no man can say—but simply to indicate how little we know of the inner life of all wild birds and animals, and how much there is yet to be discovered when we shall lay aside the gun for the field-glass, and learn to interpret the wonderful life which goes on unseen all about us.

Studies in Colonial Administration

V.—Burma

By Alleyne Ireland, F.R.G.S.

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THERE is no portion of the British Empire, East or West, which possesses greater attractions for the lover of romance than the Indian Province of Burma. The country which inspired Mr. Kipling's "Mandalay" and Mr. Fielding's "Soul of a People" needs no word of mine to emphasize a fascination which, unlike the appeal of other lands, increases with familiarity and grows deeper day by day as the borrowed impression of the printed page gives way to the delighted observation of the traveler.

The Burmese administrative system as it exists to-day is the product of a constant adjustment of the machinery of government to the peculiar needs of a country whose geographical situation has created an embarrassing confusion of diverse conditions and conflicting interests. Although the area of Burma is only 239,000 square miles, it has a length, almost due north and south, of 1,200 miles. The southern portion of the country lies on the seaboard of the Bay of Bengal, in only ten degrees of north latitude; and the northern portion is far inland, above the Tropic of Cancer. The climate is further affected by the great variation in the surface conditions of the land. A few figures will serve to show the remarkable climatic conditions of the country. The corrected returns for 1900 show that, in a territory smaller than the State of Texas, one town, Tavoy, registered a rainfall of 235 inches, and another, Mandalay, only 25

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inches, the figures being normal in each instance. The temperature returns are scarcely less interesting. In December, 1900, Kyaukse in Upper Burma experienced a heat of 97 degrees Fahrenheit, while at Bhamo, only two hundred miles to the north, a temperature of 49 degrees was recorded. In Bhamo itself the temperature during December, 1900, ranged between 82 degrees and 49 degrees Fahrenheit.

The population has responded to the great diversity of environment, and to the manifold variety of manners and customs attributable to this cause the geographical situation of the country has contributed an amazing complexity of racial types. Burma has land frontiers with Bengal, Manipur, Assam, Yunnan, the Chinese Shan States, French Indo-China, the Siamese Tai States, and Siam proper; and the interior of the country is cut up by a network of mountain ranges into innumerable isolated districts. These conditions have produced an abnormal multiplication of tribes, sub-tribes, and clans, so that more than one-third of the population of the administrative area of Burma is non-Burmese.

The distribution of indigenous races in Burma at the census of 1901 was as follows:

Burmese...	6,508,682	Tailings...	321,898
Shans.....	787,087	Chins	179,192
Karens.....	717,859	Taungthus.	168,301
Arakanese.	405,143	Kachins...	64,405

The returns show fifteen other indigenous races.

Some idea of the difficulties involved in administering the affairs of Burma may be formed from the fact that the Kachins, the least numerous of the non-Burmese indigenous races, are divided into five tribes and sixty-two sub-tribes, each with its own manners and customs, and each depending on the Government to watch its peculiar interests.

The absorption of Burma by the British Indian Empire occupied sixty years. It commenced with the war of 1824, which was brought about by frontier troubles between Bengal and the Burmese district of Arakan. The next step was the war of 1852, which arose out of the refusal of the Burmese King to make reparation for repeated outrages on British subjects. By these two wars the territory now known as Lower Burma passed under British rule.

After a peace of thirty years' duration, England and Burma found themselves at war again in 1885. The immediate cause of this war was a quarrel between the King of Burma and the Bombay-Burma Trading Company in regard to a heavy fine imposed on the corporation for alleged frauds in timber-exporting—a charge the truth of which the company has always denied. The Indian Government sided with the company, being satisfied that the fine was, in fact, nothing but an attempt to levy blackmail. Arbitration was suggested from Calcutta and rejected at Mandalay, and finally war broke out. But the real causes lay beneath the surface. Through the gross cruelty and misgovernment of King Thibaw the central authority had lost control of the remoter provinces, and a chronic condition of disorder on the frontier of British India threatened the peace of that country. Repeated attempts were made to open friendly diplomatic relations with the Burmese Court, but these overtures were met in a hostile spirit; and at last, when the Indian Government discovered that King Thibaw was conducting secret intrigues with the French, the treatment of the Bombay-Burma Trading Company was used as a convenient occasion for bringing matters to a head. The war commenced in November, 1885, and lasted less than a month; and on January 1, 1886, Upper Burma was added to the British Indian Empire. King Thibaw and his two Queens, Supayagyi and her sister Supayalat, were exiled to Ratnagiri Fort in the Bombay Presidency, and an end was made of a rule which had been little but one long record of treachery and bloodshed. It is not without a sigh of regret that the student of Burmese history closes the book with the conviction strong upon him that of all the cruel and bloodthirsty intriguers who combined to produce the downfall of the kingdom of Ava, the most wicked, the most relentless, the most cruel, was the fair Supayalat.

The task which confronted the new

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administration was one of extraordinary difficulty, and the story of how all obstacles were overcome and the country brought to a state of tranquil prosperity possesses an added interest from the fact that the conditions to be met bore a striking resemblance to those which the United States was called upon to face in the Philippines after the fall of Manila. Seven years of Thibaw's rule had plunged the country into a state of inconceivable disorder. The Government officials had lost the respect and confidence of the people; the country was overrun by armed bands of dacoits; agriculture was at a standstill; native industries were fast disappearing before a growing sense of insecurity of life and property; a dozen chiefs in various parts of the country were striving to set up independent governments; and the King, who had not once quitted the palace grounds in the seven years of his reign, had neither the desire nor the power to restore order.

Such was the condition of affairs when the British took over the country. A definite policy of pacification was immediately inaugurated, the central idea of which was to secure absolute control of the more readily accessible parts of the country, to occupy a central zone in which civil administration could be securely established and recuperative measures commenced under the most favorable conditions, and, with this zone as a nucleus, to work outwards as occasion offered. Instead of despatching numerous disconnected columns out into the hills in search of armed bands, the military force was, for the time being, concentrated around the administrative center; and later, when the established security of the pacified zone justified an extension of military operations, the principle was adopted that no place should be occupied unless it could be permanently held and provided with open communications with the main territory. The tactical basis of this policy was that no attempt should be made to enforce submission to the new Government in any district until the Government was prepared to afford the natives perfect security against reprisals on the part of the irreconcilables.

Instead of immediately providing Burma with a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislative Council, and the administrative machinery which the size of the country and its commercial importance would have justified on grounds of equity, the Indian Government very wisely left the pacification of the country and the earlier stages of its development to a Chief Commissioner and a competent staff of subordinates. The effect of this was to endow the local government with a quality of flexibility which, in the unsettled state of affairs, was of far greater importance than mere mechanical precision, and to admit of action being taken immediately on a thousand matters which, under the more formal régime of a Provincial Government, would have awaited reference to Calcutta and possibly to London. It was not until 1897 that the Chief Commissionership of Burma was raised to a Lieutenant-Governorship, an act which placed the Province in all essentials on a level with the provinces of India proper.

Except in one important particular—the financial status of the country—the government of Burma is similar in form to that of a Crown Colony. Measures passed by the local legislatures are subject to the review of the central government in India and finally to the approval of the Secretary of State for India; and no work involving the expenditure of any considerable sum of money may be undertaken without the express permission of the home authorities being first obtained.

The financial relations between India proper and the Province of Burma are most unsatisfactory to the latter. They are too complicated to discuss in this article; but the gist of the matter is this, that a large portion of the taxes paid by the Burmans is withdrawn from the country by the Indian Government and expended in India proper. It is as though a third of the public revenue of the Philippines was paid into the treasury in Washington and expended in the United States.

The most interesting feature of the administrative system of Burma is the use made by the Government of native

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headmen as tax collectors and petty magistrates. In 1901 there were in the whole of Burma no less than 18,505 of these native officials. The regulation under which the headmen are employed simply establishes a modernized form of the village system which, in Burma as in India proper, has been the basis of the indigenous administration from time immemorial.

The village systems of Upper and Lower Burma differ in some respects, and the following description refers to the system now in force in Upper Burma. The guiding principle of the village system is that, in addition to the personal responsibility under the law of each citizen for his own acts, there exists a collective responsibility of a village in regard to certain specified matters—in brief, the individual is the legal unit, the village the administrative unit recognized by the Government. The more serious responsibilities of the villages relate to three offenses—harboring criminals or failing to take reasonable measure to prevent their escape, the suppression of evidence in criminal cases, and cattle theft; and in regard to these offenses a fine may be imposed on any or on all of the inhabitants of a village. The action of the Government in fixing a collective responsibility in these matters has the force of ancient custom. The regulation in regard to cattle theft may be taken as an example. It is known as the Track Law, aad rests on a usage established by the Institutes of Manu (500 B.C.), a body of law adopted by the Burmans at least as early as the fourteenth century of our era. The principle of the Track Law is that if the track of stolen cattle can be traced into the limits of any village, the inhabitants must carry the track on beyond the village boundary, or produce the cattle, or make good the loss. Although this has been the law in Burma for centuries, it is only since the British occupation that it has been rigidly enforced. The effectiveness of the law is much greater than might be supposed by any one unfamiliar with Upper Burma. The whole country is divided into villages—the word being used to describe not merely a collection of houses but also all the adjacent land used by the inhabitants—and where one village ends another begins. The country is thus split up into clearly defined areas of responsibility, and wherever stolen cattle may happen to be at any moment, they must be within one of these areas. Each village is interested in carrying the tracks on beyond its boundary, and it is seldom that a cattle thief succeeds in avoiding capture. The law operates in a similar way in regard to fugitive criminals; and the only condition precedent to the successful working of the law is that accurate surveys of the country should establish the village boundaries.

Important as the village system is as an aid to the operation of the criminal law, its chief value lies in the administrative work performed through its agency. In each village the Government appoints a headman, whose official title is *ywathugyi*. The duties of the headman are too numerous even to be enumerated here. As the eye of the Government the headman must keep the nearest white magistrate informed in regard to the commission of any serious crime in his village, of the presence of notorious receivers or vendors of stolen goods, of the passage through his village of any person whom he knows or reasonably suspects to be a dacoit, robber, escaped convict, or proclaimed offender; of the likelihood of a failure of the crops, of an unusual rainfall, of the appearance of epidemics, and so on. As the hand of the Government the headman must search for and arrest persons suspected of criminal offenses, resist unlawful attacks made upon his village, keep open his communications with adjacent posts, furnish guides, supplies of food, means of transportation for police, troops, or Government servants passing through his village (all of which must be paid for at fixed rates by the person making the requisition); furnish labor at a fair rate of pay for making and repairing roads or for other public works; act as revenue collector, registrar of births and deaths and other vital statistics, prevent or extinguish fires, and enforce the sanitary regulations laid down by the Government.

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All headmen are vested with authority to try any person accused of assault, petty theft, and other minor offenses, and some are especially empowered to hear small civil suits. In addition to the duties outlined above, a headman is expected to perform a thousand small offices either for the Government or for the people of his own village.

Although the pay of a headman is very small, the position is eagerly sought after by the better class of natives, for here, as elsewhere in the Orient, it is considered a great distinction to hold an appointment under the Government. Apart, however, from the pay, and from those intangible advantages which appertain to official rank, certain substantial benefits fall to the lot of a headman and his family. For instance, the sons or male heirs of village headmen may claim free education in all Government or municipal schools; the Government undertakes to provide for the family of any headman who loses his life in the performance of his duties; and a headman is entitled to hold as much as twenty-five acres of land free of any revenue charges. For the guidance of headmen the Government issues the most elaborate instructions in regard to the proper steps to be taken in various contingencies. The following extracts from the Rules for the Defense of Villages afford an interesting illustration:

Rule 1. Every able-bodied male inhabitant of a village shall provide himself with (*a*) a spear, or bamboo six feet long, pointed at one end as a spear, (*b*) ten billets of heavy wood each one cubit long and two and one-half inches in diameter, (*c*) five torches made of rag soaked in kerosene oil and fastened to sticks pointed at one end, so as to allow the torch being fixed easily in the ground.

Rule 6. Those parties detailed to watch the entrances to the village shall, if the dacoits[1] have not already entered the village, endeavor to prevent their ingress to the utmost by hurling billets of wood at their heads and showing a determined front to the dacoits, holding their spears at the charge till the ywathugyi with his body of fighting men arrives on the scene.

Rule 9. The ywathugyi should cheer his men on to the attack and should keep beating his gong to let every one know where he is.

Rule 13. Old men and women should be ready with pots of water to put out fires should one break out in the village during an attack by dacoits; no one is to run away.

Rule 14. All villagers to be told that in case they are captured by a gang of dacoits and the villagers come to the rescue, they must throw themselves flat on the ground to avoid being hit by missiles flung at the dacoits.

It will be readily understood that a system of this kind possesses many advantages in a country where the members of the dominant race belong to two classes only—Government servants and business men.

The number of white men in the Government service is kept down; the natives secure a fair share of patronage; and the Government enjoys the confidence of all classes. Thus, although the final control rests always in the hands of a white man, the native is governed in all ordinary matters by one of his own race, and the appearance of foreign domination is avoided. The excellent state of feeling which exists between the rulers and the ruled in Burma is due in no small degree to the fact that the Government yields to its most humble native official the same courtesy and respect which it exacts on his behalf from those under his authority.

The civil service of Burma is part of the general civil service of India, and is recruited under the English rules. The examination was described in the second article of this series.[1] It has been conceded generally by impartial observers that the Indian civil service represents as fine a class of men as are to be found in the whole British Empire, and that in no service is there a higher standard of efficiency, a more unselfish devotion to duty, or a more complete freedom from the reproach of official corruption. The great defect in the Indian civil service, from the standpoint of recent criticism, is that the officials are falling out of touch with the people because the insatiable appetite of the secretariats for statistical returns chains the administrators to their desks when

[1] A dacoit is a gang-robber. Dacoity in Burma, which is now of very rare occurrence, corresponds to the ladronism of the Philippines, as the word is now understood in Manila.

[1] The Outlook, November 29, 1902, Vol. 72, p. 741.

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they should be out in their districts. I am inclined to the opinion that those who blame the Indian Government for its increasing rigidity, for its gradual sacrifice of individual contact in the interests of mechanical precision, overlook an important element in the situation.

The declared policy of the Indian Government is to educate the natives, to make them think for themselves, to induce the people at large to take an interest in the moral and material progress of their country, to change, in fact, the Oriental disposition in its two most rigid characteristics—the hatred of change, and the abhorrence of civil or political responsibility. Now, whether this be a wise or a foolish policy, it is quite clear that the individuality of the people cannot be developed if the Government is to retain that paternal character which it inherited from the Company.

Under the old system the Government did the governing, and the people, having been used to the arrangement for thousands of years, were content that it should be so. To-day the world is full of the idea of government for the people, *by* the people, and we have done our best to fill the Indian bazaars with the motto. But paternalism and democracy cannot march side by side. Under the former dispensation it is a virtue that the administrator should exert his personal influence to secure the aims of the Government; under the latter the exertion of such influence may easily become a vice.

If it is felt that the successful administration of Indian affairs must rest in the future (as it has in the past) on the individual character and influence of the British officials, the first thing to be done is to abandon the idea of an India governed by the popular voice; and the re-establishment of the personal relations between the people and their rulers will follow as a natural result. But if democratic ideals are to be followed, if the cry is to be "India for the Indians," it is vain to regret the days when a man could go into a district and fashion it after his mind. If the governing is to be done by the people themselves, the best kind of government official is the precise, accurate, and honest office machine. You may have in an Oriental country strong individuality in the government; it is barely conceivable that you may produce strong individuality in the people; but you cannot have both in the same place at the same time.

Rangoon, Burma.

An Illustrated Literary History of England[1]

THERE is an old German aphorism to the effect that some people read in order that they need not think. This truth, of late, is having a more extended application; for, since the advent of cheap illustrations, many people look at pictures in order that they may avoid the mental exertion of reading. The time was, a generation ago, when the text of a magazine was of all importance, and when sketches and woodcuts were mere ancillary rubrics. But the times have changed. The first thing a latter-day reader looks for in a publication is the pictures, and with these, too often, his interest is sated. In consequence, the text, in some quarters certainly, is degenerating into a sort of intellectual pap.

Now this, doubtless, is putting the matter rather strongly. Nevertheless, it suggests an undesirable tendency. Compare our magazines to-day with issues of earlier years, and you will find them filled with labor-saving devices for the reader. The newspapers have yielded to the pressure as well, and the photographer rushes to the scene of the latest railroad wreck or burning house or volcanic eruption with all the zeal of the reporter. The reading public has become as little children, reveling in picture-books.

All this, in one way, is undoubtedly a good thing; ideas are spread abroad with more rapidity, more definiteness,

[1] *An Illustrated History of English Literature.* The Macmillan Company, New York. Vols. I and III.

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and more accuracy. On the other hand, the intellectual discipline which a man obtains when he reads, digests, and recreates to his own imagination becomes a vanishing quantity as ready-made illustrations usurp the place of individual effort and inference.

We have before us two large, heavy, handsome volumes entitled "An Illustrated History of English Literature." The first volume, by Richard Garnett, tells the story from the beginning to the reign of Henry VIII., while the third, by Edmund Gosse, covers the period from Milton to Johnson. The second and fourth volumes are in preparation. The publishers in the introduction make the claim that "no previous attempt to teach the history of English literature by the eye has approached the present enterprise in fullness and variety." This claim is well grounded and warranted by comparisons, and, in view of our prefatory remarks, it becomes pertinent to the reviewer to pass judgment first upon that feature which, by the publisher's admission, is of "supreme importance."

We take as our critical standard the principle that, in a work of such a character, the eye cannot replace the functions of the mind without detriment to the book's real educational value. The line of least resistance is not always the most advantageous. We are opposed to that kind of book which makes the royal road to learning too easy. Educational books that are mere labor-saving devices for mental laziness should not command a judicious approval. After a careful examination in this instance, we find that the illustrations are subordinate aids to the text. They add to the reader's pleasure, but they offer no excuse for indolent browsing. For the most part they consist of portraits, manuscripts, drawings of characteristic plays, pageants, crafts, monuments, birthplaces, churches, and all those things which give definite conceptions to literary associations.

It is truly beneficial to study some of the fine full-page portraits of our English celebrities; to know, for instance, that, although Swift's mind was foul and ugly, his face was serenely beautiful; to witness a mystery play in action; to peep into Pope's rural grotto at Twickenham; to see the shape and style of Walpole's so-called Gothic mansion on Strawberry Hill; to learn that Izaak Walton, whom we associate with woods and streams, was actually a denizen of Fleet Street; to catch a glimpse of Richardson at home with his tea-drinking admirers, and to take a passing glance at the fashionable dandies and barrel-hooped dowagers in the main thoroughfare of Tunbridge Wells. The once famous cartoons for "Clarissa Harlowe," "Tom Jones," and the "Vicar of Wakefield" are reproduced for us, and from these we get an impression which is flavored by the quaintness of the contemporary atmosphere. In short, the illustrations are just what they ought to be; they are aids to, not substitutes for, mental effort, and they give a decoration to the text which is alluring.

Turning to the literary narrative, we find the two volumes of unequal interest. Mr. Garnett's contribution on the early period, in the main, is dull reading. The field itself, of course, is pretty barren; excluding Chaucer and a few scattering memorials there is little that can be called enduring art except by critical courtesy or national pride. Mr. Garnett, however, has done little to improve his barren land. His style is hard and dry; the facts are recorded from a bibliographer's impersonal attitude. In reading we are constantly reminded of the encyclopædia, which, admirable though it may be for accuracy, never stirs up any literary enthusiasm for the originals. In this respect Mr. Garnett's work, as an exposition for popular readers, suffers by comparison with Mr. Stopford Brooke's history of the same period, which is full of genuinely interpretative feeling. Mr. Garnett, whose scholarship is unreservedly careful, does not seem to know how to select his details for a popular presentation; moreover, he is blind to the touches of color that enliven His subjects, to be sure, are half-dead, but he slays the wounded. Instead of quoting the simple, beautiful narrative of Caedmon's dream, for example, he transcribes the incident into heavy verbiage. Caedmon's "poetical gift was duly attested and authenticated." He

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discusses the intricate question of Mandeville's identity at great length and then dismisses the fascinating Travels with a fragmentary comment. His handling of More's "Utopia" and Malory's "Morte d'Arthur" fails to reproduce their quality of charm. In fact, his history is one of those books of painstaking accuracy and critical emphasis which would delight the students of Ten Brinck, but for the general reader (and for him he is confessedly writing) is lacking in interest and inspiration. As noted above, in this regard Mr. Brooke's history is vastly superior.

One or two facts are worthy of transcription. Although Chaucer was the first writer to claim eminent recognition for English literature beyond the national limits, John Gower's "Confessio Amantis" was the first English book to be translated into a foreign tongue. The reason for Chaucer's pre-eminence as a molder of the language into a medium of art is also clearly brought out. Before his time the language was incapable of truly literary effects. The Saxon, owing to the Conquest, had lost its power of self-development and could grow only by assimilation of alien elements. The Norman French, adequate of itself for artistic purposes, could not alone, on the other hand, become truly national. It was Chaucer who made that union of the two elements which is the fundamental strength of the language.

The history by Mr. Edmund Gosse takes on an added brilliancy by contrast. We are accustomed to expect interesting things always from this professional adept in criticism. Here we have one who is at once a scholar and a middleman. He knows how to treat details, and he observes the wise rule of good expositors—the rule of knowing what not to say. His selection of gossip, for example, almost amounts to revivification. Burton, of melancholic fame, he tells us, could relieve his despondency only by going to the bridge at Oxford and hearing the bargemen swear at one another. That certainly humanizes the author of the morbid "Anatomy" and sheds a light on the gloomy pages of his book. Another bit shows that the Cavaliers were not always the courteous, self-effacing gentlemen of our hero-worshiping fancies. "In his old age Waller met Saccharissa again as the Dowager Duchess of Sunderland. 'When, I wonder,' said she, 'will you write me such beautiful verses again?' 'When, Madam,' Waller replied, 'your ladyship is as young and handsome again.'" It is the fashion to indulge in a great deal of sentimental illusion about these Cavalier poets, but Gosse, as a true critic, dispels that folly. "Carew," he says, "was the father of that whole family of gallant gentlemen, a little the worse for wine, who chirruped under Celia's window until the end of the century. . . . The lives of all these men had been riotous and sensuous, and their songs were struck from their lives like sparks from their rapiers. . . . They were the lyrists of the flesh." In a terse sentence he conjures up the environment in which Herrick composed his pagan rhymes. "His clerical establishment at Dean Prior seems to have consisted of Prudence Baldwin, his ancient maid, of a cock, a hen, a goose, a tame lamb, a cat, a spaniel, and a pet pig, learned enough to drink out of a tankard." In a few words he explains the contemporary vogue of Pope. Pope leaped into fame with "The Rape of the Lock;" French models had been imported to England and had become all the rage; Pope had written his poem in that light elegance of badinage which was the highest aim of French art, and in so doing he had surpassed his French rivals. It was like setting a lesson for the schoolmaster.

There is an alchemic virtue in Mr. Gosse's style. "The rare amenity and sweetness" of Jeremy Taylor catches a temperament. "Sterne was carried away by the tumult of his nerves; he has the strained laughter that breaks into tears," is a criticism that shows psychological insight. "Swift's burning enthusiasms were all negative" is a paradox that makes the reader think and perceive; and, finally, the pen-picture of Milton, "wrapped like Moses in a cloud, in all his integral dignity," helps one to the realization of that poet's sublime calling.

These quotations, which are random

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samples of Mr. Gosse's re-creative style, show that he possesses the great essential of an interpreter—imagination to see behind the fact. It is not too much to say, perhaps, that no man without such an imagination has ever effectively wrought upon a popular audience through a book. It is the source of power in the Bible, in Bunyan, in our best critics of life and literature, and no one can hope to become a successful historian without it—for without it he cannot see the real greatness of a dead past. Mr. Gosse, possessing such an insight, has succeeded in his popular history where his coadjutor has failed.

Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Agriculture for Beginners. By Charles William Burkett and Frank Lincoln Stevens and Daniel Harvey Hill. Illustrated. Ginn & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 267 pages.

American Railway Transportation. By Emory R. Johnson, Ph.D. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 434 pages. $1.50, net. (Postage additional.)

A valuable addition to Appletons' Business Series. The author is conservative in his sympathies, does not point out some of the facts to which anti-monopolists give prominence, and scarcely refers to the literature in which such facts are emphasized. He even fails to consider adequately the anti-monopoly principle that railway charges, like those in competitive business, should be determined by the cost of service. But these limitations do not affect the authoritative quality of his work. His volume gives perhaps the most thorough analysis of the past and present conditions of the American railway service that has yet appeared. Every important phase of the subject is considered, including the transportation of mail and express matter, the attitude of the courts toward the regulation of rates and the issue of injunctions in labor disputes, and the most recent legislation for the taxation of railways and the prevention of discrimination between competing shippers. An important feature of the book is the frequent comparison of American regulations, rates, etc., with those of the principal countries in Europe.

Berlin and its Environs. By Karl Baedeker. With Maps and Plans. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4¼×6¼ in. 237 pages. 90c., net.

For the first time the city of Berlin has received the honor of having a special volume of Baedeker devoted to it. The methods of the Baedeker handbooks are too familiar to require description. That on Berlin is furnished with careful maps and plans, and contains a vast deal of information compressed into small space.

Certain Rigorous Methods of Treating Problems in Celestial Mechanics (On). By Forest Ray Moulton. (Decennial Publications. First Series, Vol. VIII.) The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 8×11 in. 26 pages. 25c.

Critical and Exegetical Commentary on Numbers. By George Buchanan Gray, M.A., D.D. (The International Critical Commentary.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5½×8½ in. 489 pages.

The same combination of minute and exceedingly careful scholarship with free and sane literary and historical judgment that is characteristic of the other volumes of the International Critical Commentary appears in this commentary on Numbers To the well-informed minister this work, like its companion volumes, will be indispensable. In spite of the conflict that has been waged over the higher criticism of the Pentateuch, this commentary bears no trace of the polemical spirit. On the other hand, there is none of that easy dogmatism that ignores all difference of opinion. It is impossible for us in the space we have at command to go into any details of the critical results arrived at in this work. We can only call attention to such admirable statements as those regarding the modification in the estimate of Balaam's character, the explanation of the account of the bronze serpent, and the classification of the story of the extermination of the Midianites under Midrash (that is, a Jewish method of illustrating legal or religious themes) rather than under history, as instances of the way by which Professor Gray deals with many perplexing passages. It is the light which the various sources of Numbers cast upon the periods during which they originated that largely gives to Numbers its historical value, as in the case of many Old Testament books; and this fact is kept clear throughout the commentary.

Development of Constitutional Law in New York State and the Constitutional Convention of 1894. By Henry Wayland Hill, A.M. The Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo. 6×9 in. 41 pages.

Diary of John Evelyn, Esquire, F.R.S. (The). Edited by William Bray. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×6½ in. 809 pages. $1.25, net.

In some ways Evelyn's Diary is a companion volume to the more famous diary of his contemporary, Pepys. It is certainly more agreeable to have this small-volume edition, with its thin paper and limp cover in almost uniform style with the remarkable single-

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volume edition of Pepys published not long since.

Early Development of Lepidosteus Osseus (The). By Albert Chauncey Eycleshymer. (Decennial Publications, First Series, Vol. X.) University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 8×11 in. 20 pages. 50c.

Essays and Addresses. By Jules Cambon. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 90 pages.

This slim volume has real value, whether to the student of politics, history, or literature. Every essay or address in it will repay reading and re-reading; specially suggestive are those on "France and the Formation of the American Ideal," "France and American Independence," and "France as a Champion of Liberty." The book recalls one who is attractive personally and of worth diplomatically.

Essay on Truth. By Milton R. Scott. Published by the Author, Newark, Ohio. 4½×7 in. 120 pages.

Ethel in Fairyland. By Edith Rebecca Bolster. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5½×7½ in. 142 pages. $1, net.

French Music in the XIXth Century. By Arthur Hervey. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 271 pages. $1.50, net.

The story of music in France is largely the story of French opera. As Mr. Mason points out in his article in The Outlook of last week on the composer of "Carmen," this implies decided limitations. Music as the servant-girl to deck out Drama is not so great as Music the mistress of her own household. But Music in France has been a very charming maid, even when not free. The names of Auber, Meyerbeer, Gounod, Offenbach, Bizet, and Massenet call up works of great brilliance and beauty. Others there have been, like Berlioz, Saint-Saëns, and César Franck, who have extended worthily the realm of absolute music as well as that of musical drama; but even these have found their native instinct turn to the mating of music with other art. This volume in the series on "Music in the Nineteenth Century" is useful. It is written with dignity, though without any special distinction of style. Many readers will find of special interest the comments on the modern French music-drama, such as Bruneau's "La Rêve" and Charpentier's "Louise," especially in view of the possibility that the latter will be produced as a novelty this winter in America.

Gentleman from Jay (The). By George William Louttit. Illustrated. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 235 pages. $1.25.

Handbook for Noncommissioned Officers of Infantry. By Captain M. B. Stewart, 8th U. S. Infantry. The Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co., Kansas City, Mo. 4¼×6 in. 102 pages. 50c.

Limanora: The Island of Progress. By Godfrey Sweven. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 711 pages. $1.50.

A ponderous description of a Utopia inhabited by people equally unreal.

Lord's Prayer (The): A Paraphrase. By Charlotte H. Redfern and Charles T. Sempers. The Homosum Co., New York. 5½×7½ in. 22 pages. $1.

Man with the Wooden Face. By Mrs. Fred Reynolds. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 312 pages.

This is a pleasantly restful love story. The period is the present and the scene is set in Wales.

Mental Traits of Sex (The). By Helen Bradford Thompson, Ph.D. Illustrated. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 5×8 in. 188 pages. $1.50, net.

An essay in laboratory psychology more interesting in subject matter than in results.

Monsigny. By Justice Miles Forman. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 846 pages. $1.50.

A rather strenuous tale, whose heroine is admitted by her father to be "the most beautiful woman in France." The action is mainly in one of the great châteaux near Paris, where a house party results in exposing the curiously wicked wiles of one woman, bringing ultimate joy to the heroine and her suitor, and incidentally exploiting the phenomenal strength and extraordinary shrewdness of the aged Earl of Strope, who fills a large space in the story.

Out for the Coin. By Hugh McHugh. Illustrated. The G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 4×7 in. 107 pages. 75c.

Practical Journalism: A Complete Manual of the Best Newspaper Methods. By Edwin L. Shuman. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 265 pages. $1.25, net.

This is eminently a practical book, and it might well serve, if not as a text-book, at least as "assigned reading," in Mr. Pulitzer's School of Journalism. There is a certain fascination about the profession of journalism which extends beyond the actual workers, and we have no doubt that the general public will be interested in this account of the methods actually employed in great newspapers for gathering, editing, and printing the news. Less attention is given to the higher part of newspaper work—the leading of public opinion, the interpretation of the world's progress, and the instilling of principles of justice and honor. The points touched upon by the author are numerous, and include such widely separated things as the function of the copy-reader, women in journalism, making newspaper illustrations, the Sunday supplement, Associated Press methods, the market for jokes, punctuation, writing advertisements, editing a country paper (we are glad to see under this head the sub-title "Violent Partisanship Unprofitable"), and a hundred other points of workaday interest.

Promotion of the Admiral (The), and Other Sea Comedies. By Morley Roberts. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 298 pages. $1.50.

A collection of lively and often jovial sea tales which are sometimes a little in the vein of Mr. Jacobs but more often in the rough-and-tumble style employed by Mr. Morgan Robertson. The first story deals with the "shanghaing" of an English admiral and his rise in one voyage from being a common sailor to the command of the ship. We wish that the English author had not made his American say "Stay, sirree, I've got it now."

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Recovery and Restatement of the Gospel (The). By Loran David Osborn, Ph.D. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 5×7½ in. 253 pages. $1.25.

The same spirit that found expression in Ritschl's teachings, in Harnack's "What is Christianity?" and in that fine product of American scholarship, Dr. W. A. Brown's "The Essence of Christianity," is manifest in this volume. Its merits are the merits of that spirit; its defects are those of a special method of exemplifying that spirit. The author believes that with the growth of institutional Christianity the primitive gospel became incrusted with foreign matter, and that this must first be stripped off and then the pure Gospel molded into a form adapted to the present generation before the message of Christ can be understood. Of course this is open to two criticisms: first, that the growth of Christianity may not be all superfluous, but may be in part at least due to "resident forces;" second, that the molding into a form adapted to the present generation may be by a process that will introduce matter as foreign as that introduced during earlier periods. The author accepts the work of the four evangelists as representing a purer Gospel than the epistles. He ignores the religious value of what the Quakers call the Inner Light. In the last analysis he makes the Gospel an external deposit to be recovered and redeposited. Nevertheless, his book is suggestive, and is a wholesome effort to rid Christianity of non-essentials.

Red Triangle (The): Being Some Further Chronicles of Martin Hewitt, Investigator. By Arthur Morrison. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 304 pages. $1.50.

These detective stories are very obviously patterned after the Sherlock Holmes type. It could hardly be said, however, that they are imitations; they have originality and ingenuity. One is inclined to protest against the introduction of hypnotism; to some readers at least the use of hypnotism in detective stories seems not to be quite fair play, as anything and everything can be explained on that basis. Mr. Arthur Morrison has done work in fiction of so much higher character than is found in this book that perhaps it is hard to appreciate these stories at their real value.

Religious Sense in its Scientific Aspect (The). By Greville MacDonald, M.D. A. & C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5×8 in. 243 pages.

This volume consists of three lectures on evolution and religion, or rather the evolution of religion. As memory exists in a rudimentary or passive form in low orders of animal life, but becomes active only when united with a high intelligence, so the author finds the religious sense existing in a rudimentary and passive form in the very simplest structures. Thus, by tracing it to a simple form, he undertakes to make the religious sense more easily understood. He takes pains to point out that, so far from belittling this sense, the process of searching for it in its beginnings exalts it, by showing the response of unconscious nature as well as conscious man to the life of God in the world. Thus he finds the religion of service, of renunciation, and of freedom exemplified throughout nature. His very suggestive definition of the religious sense is as follows: "The religious sense, whether passive or active, is that acknowledgment of the law which compels all creatures possessing the sense to work or live for objects or attainments, be they immediate or prospective, in which the individual has no personal concern, save perhaps in exalted specimens of the species Man." As a piece of terse expository writing this book is admirable. Its philosophic qualities are of a high order, though the writer disclaims being an academic philosopher. To those minds who find it difficult to construct out of the facts of science any religious view of the universe this volume will be of great service. The volume is worth reading and owning if only for the fable of the chessmen which is included in the last lecture. By this is expressed pictorially the truth that the existence of sin is not inconsistent with the existence of a beneficent God. In this lecture Dr. MacDonald holds up as the supreme fact the coming among men of him "whose oneness with eternal Law transcending all mundane obligation was revealed in his sacrifice, and his going from those he loved, that they might grow and learn freedom in faith." Like Professor Shaler, Dr. MacDonald is a scientist who finds the significance of life in the worth of the individual. His book is one of the most valuable and thoughtful of recent religious works.

Rhine from Rotterdam to Constance (The). By Karl Baedeker. With Maps and Plans. (Fifteenth Revised Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×6¼ in. 456 pages. $2.10, net.

Elsewhere we note the appearance of the very latest Baedeker handbook, the one devoted to Berlin. Here we note the appearance of the fifteenth English edition of Baedeker's "Rhine"—the first, we think, of all the famous Baedeker handbooks. It has been thoroughly revised and is really all-inclusive in the amount of information conveyed.

Ritschlianism: Expository and Critical Essays. By James Orr, M.A., D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. 5½×8 in. 283 pages.

Those who are unfamiliar with the group of religious ideas commonly termed Ritschlianism will not get an adequate idea of it from this collection of essays. The author is not practiced in putting strongly the views of one with whom he disagrees. In some of the essays he has the air of being judicial, and his intent to be fair is obvious. In one of the essays, however, he abandons even that virtue, and deliberately turns an apparent exposition of Dr. McGiffert's views into an argument against them. Professor Orr's mode of thinking, by which he identifies the supernatural with the unnatural, makes it impossible for him fully to understand those whom he undertakes to criticise.

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Rossetti Papers, 1862 to 1870. A Compilation by William Michael Rossetti. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5½×9 in. 558 pages. $2.50, net.
Reserved for later notice.

Schumann. By Annie W. Patterson, Mus. Doc., B.A. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5¼×7½ in. 232 pages. $1.25.
If Schumann were still living, he would not be quite as old as Pope Leo XIII. was at his death. Yet Schumann seems to belong to a musical epoch decidedly removed from our own times. Such a fact illustrates how very much alive the art of music is, and how great is the need of restraint in passing judgment upon contemporary composers. Of sanity in judgment Schumann himself was a conspicuous example. Unlike most creative geniuses, his critical faculty was keen. His judgment was never warped by professional jealousy; that ignoble trait was incompatible with his unselfish character. Mendelssohn, so much unlike him in temperament, he greatly admired; and Brahms, when a youth of twenty, he recognized as a young eagle. If he failed to appreciate wholly the genius of Wagner, it was due largely to the fact that Wagner's artistic virtues are quite as much dramatic as musical, while Schumann's canons of judgment, as well as his genius, were not at all dramatic, but distinctly musical. There are few composers whose personalities are as winning as Schumann's. His dignified reticence, in marked contrast to the sentimental demonstrativeness commonly supposed to belong to the artistic temperament, his strong but well-governed emotional nature, his generosity, his courage, his fidelity to friends, his devotion to his wife, his cultivated mind—all these indicate how wholesome he was and how purely a matter of physical frailty was that insanity which brought upon him his untimely end. This biography is a pleasant one, appreciative rather than critical. To characterize the peculiar quality of Schumann's music is quite as difficult as to describe in words the peculiar *timbre* of the oboe. The biographer does not succeed, at any rate, in doing this in the part of the biography that relates to his compositions; but she has succeeded in the rest of the book in making, without any special distinction in style, a readable account of the man. This volume is one of the best in the series on the Master Musicians.

Silver Poppy (The) By Arthur Stringer. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 291 pages.
A story of New York; art, journalism, and novel-writing furnish the fields in which the characters strive for recognition. The situations are tense and the ending sorrowful.

Sir David Wilkie, R.A. By William Bayne. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 235 pages. $1.25, net.
Reserved for later notice.

Songs of Dreams. By Ethel Clifford. John Lane, New York. 5×8 in. 148 pages.
Exquisite in paper, print, and binding, this model of book-making appropriately contains exquisite verse—songs in imitation, in remembrance, of dreams, of love, songs in the night and songs out of doors. The poet's qualities may be appreciated by an excerpt:

I have seen the world. Was it fair?
Ay. Fair and foul combined.
About the sepulchre
The roses twined.
. . . . . .
I have dreamed a dream. And waked?
Ay. Waked with waking's pain.
My time is come to sleep
And never wake again.

Song of Speed (A). By William Ernest Henley. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5¼×8 in. 30 pages. 50c.

Story of Kennett (The). By Bayard Taylor. Illustrated. (Cedarcroft Edition.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 469 pages. $1.50.
Bayard Taylor's cheerful, sane, and readable story well deserves to be reprinted for the present generation. It appeared originally nearly forty years ago, and its pictures of homely life in Pennsylvania have in them real character study and a quality of pervasive kindliness.

Story of Notation (The). By C. F. Abdy Williams, M.A., Mus. Bac. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 265 pages. $1.25, net.
The development of musical notation can hardly be traced without constant reference to technicalities that are not very interesting except to the musician who has technical training. This volume, therefore, is of value chiefly to such. But the curiosities of notation are not without general interest, as, for instance, those attempts to manufacture out of hand a system to supplant the illogical orthography—if the term may be used—of the accepted notation. These systems have proved to be much like Volapük, ingenious and sometimes grotesque, but useless. This book is to music what a book on etymology is to literature. It belongs to the "Music Story Series."

Studies for Personal Workers. By Howard Andrew Johnston. The International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations, New York. 5×7½ in. 161 pages.
A sensible handbook for those who are studying methods of bringing the influence of religion to bear upon separate individual lives.

Technique and Musical Expression: A Text-Book for Singers. By Albert Gérard-Thiers. The Theodore Rebla Publishing Co., New York. 6¾×8 in. 108 pages. $1.

Thomas Gainsborough. By Arthur B. Chamberlain. Illustrated. (The Popular Library of Art.) E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 4×6 in. 228 pages. 75c., net.
Reserved for later notice.

Timothy and Rhoda Ogden Edwards of Stockbridge, Mass., and their Descendants: A Genealogy. Compiled by William H. Edwards. Illustrated. The Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati. 6×9¼ in. 167 pages.

Women of the Middle Kingdom (The). By R. L. McNabb, A.M. Illustrated. Jennings & Pye, Cincinnati, Ohio. 5×7½ in. 160 pages. 75c., net.

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Correspondence

A Mississippian on Vardaman

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I have just witnessed the most remarkable political campaign that has ever occurred in Mississippi. It has been remarkable chiefly on account of the fact that it was the first election under the new primary law, which gives every white voter a voice in the nomination of all officers, from the lowest to the highest, and a nomination here is, of course, equivalent to an election. This has created an unprecedented interest on the part of the voters, and the largest vote ever polled in the State has been cast. The most discussed issue has been the race question, which is now uppermost in this State, and which has reached a more serious aspect than at any time since the days of Reconstruction. Major Vardaman, who has just received the nomination for Governor, is responsible for raising this issue. He is a most violent negro-hater, and has taken advantage of the passions and prejudices of the ignorant white population to arouse their hostility to the blacks, and by this means to ride into office. He is an open advocate of lynch law (when negroes are involved), and I dare say he has done more to arouse a spirit of lawlessness and mob rule throughout the State than all other causes combined. At the Crystal Springs Chautauqua he declared that as Sheriff or as Governor he would protect a negro from a mob, but as a private citizen he would lead the mob to string the brute up, and he had little respect for a white man who wouldn't. The great applause which followed his statement showed that he was not alone in his advocacy of anarchy, and this was still further confirmed by the results of the election.

There can be no doubt that Major Vardaman's election has given an encouragement to the lawless element of this State that will result in such an epidemic of lynching as has never been known before. The lynching sentiment has been further shown by the overwhelming defeat of Governor Longino for the United States Senate. Longino has made a model Governor, has stood firmly for the majesty of the law, and by prompt and energetic action has foiled the efforts of lynching mobs in a number of instances. But his most unpopular act was to recommend the enactment of a law making counties liable in damages for lynchings occurring within their limits. For this he has been unsparingly criticised. He had also the misfortune to be a brother-in-law of one of President Roosevelt's appointees. Roosevelt is the most bitterly hated man in America down this way, and the most serious charge against Longino was that he was "tracking in Roosevelt's steps."

Besides being an advocate of lynch law, Vardaman stands as an uncompromising enemy of negro education, and throughout the State he has taunted the white people with spending thousands in 1890 to disfranchise the negro, and now spending millions to again qualify him by education. He says the negro is necessary in the economy of the world, but that he was designed by God Almighty to be a burden-bearer, and that he is to-day what he was six thousand years ago in his native jungles. All attempts to educate him have resulted only in the spoiling of good field-hands, and the consequent perversion of the original plan of the Creator. Vardaman's plan is to deprive the negro of the benefit of the public-school fund, and although the Constitution does not allow this, he may succeed in getting the Legislature to submit a Constitutional amendment to the people, in which event there is reason to believe that it would be adopted. It seems certain that the radical white majority is not satisfied with mere disfranchisement, and as Mississippi led the way in this movement, she may be the leader in a movement to deprive the negro of civil rights.

There can be no doubt that the hostility of the whites to the blacks is increasing, and to this feeling Vardaman has given the greatest stimulus of recent years. One of his arguments has been that his defeat would encourage the negroes to assert their right to social

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equality with the whites, which would necessitate the killing of at least several thousand of them. It would also be an approval of the social equality doctrines of Roosevelt, whom Vardaman has made a leading issue in the campaign. He has characterized the President as a "coon-flavored miscegenationist," and has otherwise abused him in language which for low-down vulgarity and indecency exceeds anything that ever fell from the lips of a public man.

During the last year the Whitecap organizations have been active in various portions of the State, and in the county adjoining this they have forced the merchants who own land to agree to neither sell nor rent to negroes. In the meantime the race problem is being complicated by changes in the labor situation. The negroes who do not own land are leaving the farms and flocking to the towns, where a large per cent. of the men live by gambling and stealing, or from the income of their wives who are employed as house servants. In many of the towns not one-tenth of the negro men have regular employment, nor do they want it. They subsist in the manner mentioned above, or from the income of an occasional day's labor. It is truly a discouraging task to undertake to hire one for any purpose or for any reasonable compensation. This is especially true of the young generation that has grown up since the Civil War. Many of the farmers have been compelled to let their farms go to waste on this account.

JAMES WILFORD GARNER.

Topisaw, Pike County, Mississippi.

[Mr. Garner, as many of our readers may know, is the author of the book entitled "Reconstruction in Mississippi." He is also a professor of history in Columbia University (New York City).—THE EDITORS.]

Serendipity Again

To the Editors of The Outlook:

Your correspondent is all wrong about *serendipity*. Why, "seren," in Welsh, means *star*, and "dip," in its root, means *little*, like the "tip" of a tail; and "ty" means *house*. Therefore serendipity means "the star of the little house." See! If serendip has an Indian derivation, that, of course, only goes to prove a family relation, that is all. R.

A Memorial to Major Reed

On August 15 a meeting was held in Bar Harbor of friends of the late Major Reed, M.D., U.S.A., to whom in a large degree is due the discovery of the mode by which yellow fever has been spread and the consequent suppression of that dire disease. Representative men were present from different parts of the country, and letters were received from various members of committees already appointed to promote the collection of a memorial fund in grateful commemoration of Dr. Reed's services. Important suggestions were presented from President Eliot, Dr. W. W. Keen, Professor J. W. Mallet, and others. Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, chairman of a committee appointed by the American Association for the Advancement of Science, presided, and Dr. Stuart Paten acted as Secretary. Among those who took part in the conference were Dr. W. H. Welch, of Baltimore, Dr. Janeway, of New York, Dr. Abbott, of Philadelphia, Dr. Herter, of New York, Dr. Barker, of Chicago, Dr. Putnam, of Buffalo, Dr. Fremont Smith, of Bar Harbor, and Dr. Sajous, of Philadelphia; and besides these medical gentlemen, Bishop Lawrence, of Massachusetts, and Messrs. Morris K. Jesup, President of the New York Chamber of Commerce, John S. Kennedy, President of the Presbyterian Hospital of New York, and William J. Schieffelin, of New York. The following conclusions were reached: that an effort should be made to raise a memorial fund of $25,000 or more, the income to be given to the widow and daughter of Dr. Reed, and after their decease the principal to be appropriated either to the promotion of researches in Dr. Reed's special field, or to the erection of a memorial in his honor at Washington.

Arrangements were made for the publication of circulars explaining this movement, and asking co-operation not only from the medical profession, but from all liberally disposed individuals who appreciate the value of Dr. Reed's services to mankind. *

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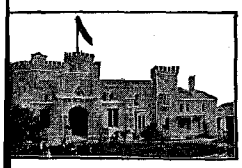

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